

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE "Cabinet rumors" which have been afloat during the past fortnight have, as a rule, hardly been substantial enough to bear discussion. But the rumor that Mr. Blaine is to have the State Department begins to assume considerable consistency, and to call for remark. The remark for which it calls is, that as Mr. Blaine is not a lawyer; has no acquaintance with foreign countries; has had no diplomatic experience; has only a very superficial knowledge, if any at all, of the needs of foreign commerce; and is not, and has not been, identified with any home question of interest or importance, General Garfield's object in appointing him, if he should appoint him, will be the recognition of what Mr. Blaine did for him at the Chicago Convention. But it is no more proper for Mr. Garfield to pay personal debts by Cabinet positions than it was for Mr. Hayes to reward the Louisiana rascals who counted him in by places in the custom-house. This rule would apply to any appointee, however free from reproach, unless continued, as Mr. Sherman might be, from a previous Administration. But Mr. Blaine is not free from reproach. On the contrary, he is covered with very serious reproach. Mr. Garfield knows very well that he had no answer to the charges against him in connection with his railroad operations while in Congress, except that the committee which heard them had "rebel brigadiers" in it. To the confession—the miserable confession—in one of his letters, that he used his authority as speaker to help speculators in getting a bill through the House, and then claimed reward for it, he has never attempted any answer at all. Now Mr. Garfield, we are sure, has not forgotten this. If he has, the public has not, and it would be unfortunate if the very first act of his administration should furnish his own enemies with something which they would be sure to use as an illustration of that want of moral discrimination with which they are constantly charging him.

The Senatorial contest at Albany continues and will continue to the last moment, which is, we believe, the 18th. The chances thus far seem to be in favor of the "machine," which has three candidates in the field, whom the henchmen at Albany will probably present in due course, if they have not already presented, to Mr. Conkling for his final selection, as "dignus, dignior, dignissimus," after the manner of the Catholic clergy when electing a bishop subject to the Pope's approval. Two of the candidates, Messrs. Crowley and Platt, are the ordinary "Toms" of contemporary politics, considerable men at caucuses and conventions, but of little weight anywhere else. The other, Mr. Morton, of this city, is a highly respectable banker and a sound financier; but if he have any political opinions of his own on other subjects they are not known to the public, and his appearance in the arena is ascribed solely to Mr. Conkling's favor. Up to the present Mr. Conkling has been going through a little comedy by pretending to be unwilling to decide between three such eminent men, but he will, of course, decide in time. In fact he *must* decide, because his followers at Albany have no mind of their own in the matter. Of course the situation is one which fills a great many with honest shame. To see the senatorship of this great commercial State waiting to be bestowed as a gift, like an English rotten borough by a wealthy peer, on the obscure personal follower of a dextrous "manager," is certainly enough to make anybody but an elderly "worker" blush. There is, however, little use in blushing over it. It is the natural result of the system which has produced Mr. Conkling himself, and given him his "great proportions," and as long as the system lasts the quality of the Senators will decline. Men of real force and ability come to the front in politics only when the problems of politics are worth their labor and attention. When these problems consist simply in the packing of caucuses and the officering of custom-houses with "good men," of course we cannot expect Wrights, and Marcys, and Swards, and Dixes to be ready to tackle them for us. We have to put up with the "Toms" and Thomases.

A serious blow will be given to the system if Mr. Conkling can be kept out of his custom-house for another four years. He has only been able to keep his machine together under Mr. Hayes by the belief of his followers that his eclipse was only temporary, and this belief was confirmed by the lamentable weakness of the Administration in sending down members of the Cabinet, in 1879, to stump for his henchman, Mr. Cornell, and breaking through its own civil-service rules in order to aid in his election. If Mr. Conkling were deprived of the patronage for another term the faith of the henchmen would probably be greatly weakened, and other agencies which are working for his overthrow would have time to tell. Without patronage, or the near hope of patronage, he would have no means of influence left. His manners are offensive, his achievements in any field of statesmanship *nil*, and his "eloquence" so hollow that no human being ever thinks of reading or quoting his speeches one day after the election. By the way, why does not some rich young man with nothing to do get up a history of his political career in a short pamphlet? As the political biography of the Senator of a great commercial State during one of the most interesting periods of modern history it would be a real curiosity. The Independent Republican Committee, we notice, have sent a circular to the members of the Legislature, maintaining that their first consideration in the selection of a Senator should be "his fitness to deal with the great economic questions, such as the condition of the tariff, the finances, the civil service, the national election laws, and the relations of the state to corporations," and that it would be "degrading" to choose a man simply because he was a friend of Mr. Conkling's. What superfine nonsense this must seem to "Tom" Platt.

As we anticipated last week, Mr. Eugene Hale has outstripped Mr. Frye in the race for the Maine senatorship, the latter "withdrawing." This circumstance has been generally taken to indicate Mr. Blaine's promotion to the Cabinet, in which case Mr. Frye is supposed to have been assured of his place. There is much probability in such a view, and if correct the Senate will be still worse off than we had calculated. In the meantime, Mr. O. D. Conger has slipped into the senatorship for Michigan, as a *tertium quid* between two irreconcilable rivals—one the present incumbent. Of Mr. Conger a sincere admirer—we refer to the Milwaukee *Sentinel*—says that he "is about the first man on his feet when anything like a row threatens" in the lower House, and from this it may correctly be inferred that he would adorn a bear-garden better than the Senate. In fact, these new invasions make one shudder to think what is to become of that "senatorial courtesy" which Mr. Blaine has been so long endeavoring to understand, with the patient tuition of Messrs. Thurman and Edmunds. Mr. Hale's smartness and Mr. Conger's vociferousness and habit of rising to his feet promptly in case of a row are a poor substitute for the qualities which have built up the traditions of the Senate, and made it one of the kindest, most deliberate and dignified legislative bodies in the world. "Boss Keyes," who has had no Congressional experience at all, will, if elected, probably look on in silence and learn what he can. General Harrison's election is now certain in Indiana, and marks a decent accession to the Senate. The Pennsylvania contest is still undecided.

Mr. Willis, of Kentucky, has introduced in the House a bill "to prevent extortion from persons in the public service, and bribery and coercion by such persons." In other words, it is a bill making the levying of "assessments" on Government officers a penal offence. It prohibits the use of official influence to extract money for political purposes from Government employees; all touting or canvassing for assessments in Government buildings; all appointments, or promotions, or increase of salary in consideration of assessments, and all threats in support of assessments; all payment or promise of assessments with a view to procuring appointment or promotion or increase of salary, and condemns all persons guilty of contravening its provisions to a fine of not more than \$1,000, or imprisonment for not more than one year, or both, and gives any officer who has paid an assessment by reason of any threat, fear, or coercion, or by reason of any solicitation or promise in violation of the law, power to recover the amount by a suit at law. If passed, the

very smallest service it will render will be the liberation of the office-holders from most degrading bondage, and if the Democrats really have the horror of assessments which they professed during the late canvass, passed it will be.

Mr. Springer, of Illinois, has introduced into the House a bill regulating the apportionment of Representatives in accordance with the new census, which shows a population of fifty millions. He retains the present number, 293, and prescribes a system of districting which in certain cases involves minority representation. In the latter particular it seems ill-digested, if it is not open to still greater objection. As between a House of 293, subject to increase by the admission of new States during the decade, and of 300, as some propose, there is not much to choose; but that a larger body would add anything to the despatch of business or to the credit of the American Congress is past belief. Remaining within its present limits, the House would undergo an adjustment depriving the Eastern States of four seats and the Middle of five, while adding six to the Northwestern, one to the Pacific Coast, and two to the Southern—*i.e.*, the former slave States. That the South should gain two seats from the North is the genuine surprise of the census. It has, however, much less political than sociological significance. The States which profit by it directly are Arkansas, Mississippi, South Carolina, Texas, and West Virginia; and the quality (without regard to party) of their contributions to the House of Representatives will probably not greatly fall short of that of the new Northern contingent. We offer as a consolation to the States whose delegations are diminished the consideration that quality is of much easier attainment with a small than with a large number—that Massachusetts, for example, ought to have much less concern of mind in filling ten places than New York in filling thirty; and further, that competition in quality—or, in other words, weight of intellect, character, and training—is what every one not an office-seeker or a machinist must desire to see among the several States of the Union.

The minority representation proposed by Mr. Springer is meritorious chiefly in enlarging the Congressional district; but when he provides that a State with five Representatives shall, like a State with one, constitute but a single Congressional district, it is difficult to see why he clings to districts at all; why all Congressmen should not be elected "at large"; and why his mode of minority voting (two votes in a candidacy of three, three votes in a candidacy of five) should not begin as soon as a State is entitled to three Representatives. This would simplify and equalize the whole matter, and would probably do more than anything else to retain men continuously in public life, and to ensure executive officers a chance to return to the public service after the Administration with which they had been identified was at an end. The Congressional district as now constituted we believe to be intimately associated with the abuse of the civil service, the rule of the boss, and corrupt legislation. It has long tended to make political aspiration hopeless except to the rich, and to foster that system of purchase, even at the polls, which has recently been partly revealed in these columns. It is favorable to the promotion of obscure mediocrity, and makes popular selection almost impossible. The essential idea of it is that numerical equilibrium which the founders of the Constitution signally disregarded when they gave every State two Senators irrespective of population, but which can, so far as the House is concerned, be just as well secured by Congressmen at large as under the present arrangement, not to mention the notorious injustice wrought by the irresistible temptation to gerrymander. If the district system is to be modified at all, it is worth considering whether it had not better be wholly done away with. As a convenience, it is little else than a pretext.

The resignation of Secretary Thompson left the Navy portfolio a rather unwelcome charge for the limited remainder of the present Administration. Considerable speculation has, therefore, attended the President's nomination of Gen. Nathan Goff, the U. S. District-Attorney for West Virginia. According to some he is rich enough to afford the transient honor, even if, as others contend, his district-attorneyship will be held for him. A different opinion is that he has been selected in deference to the wishes of General Garfield, so that he may be expected to remain in his place for the next four years. This view seems

to be not universally held in his own State, for we observe an effort to "present the claims" of Mr. A. W. Campbell, editor of the *Wheeling Intelligencer*, to a seat in Mr. Garfield's Cabinet—a body manifestly too small to hold two West Virginians. We are bound to add that the *Intelligencer* is not assisting the movement, and that Mr. Campbell will undoubtedly compare favorably with any Republican party editor north or south of Mason and Dixon's line. His special recommendation to Mr. Garfield is that he stood up like a man against Grant and Conkling at the Chicago Convention, and by a little judicious mimicry lowered the Boss's crest very effectively; nor did the latter's attempt to have the Convention disown him as a bolter take away Mr. Campbell's courage, while it gave Mr. Garfield an opportunity—in a rather feeble way, it must be confessed—to interpose as the champion of free thought and action in the Republican ranks.

An instance of political morality without a parallel in our experience has just occurred in a very unusual place, the Pennsylvania Senate. Mr. Eckley B. Coxe, Democratic senator-elect for the Twenty-sixth district, when called upon to take the oath of office, declined to do so from inability to swear that his election expenditures had been only such as were "expressly authorized by law." An act passed in 1874 defines these legitimate expenses to be for printing and travelling, for disseminating information to the public, and for political meetings, demonstrations, and conventions. Mr. Coxe, as appears from a letter to his constituents, was not ignorant of the statute, but did not foresee at the beginning what sort of expenses he would be involved in, and when he found himself violating the law, he refrained from withdrawing lest the act should endanger the success of the whole ticket. Nevertheless he did nothing of which he was ashamed, or which was in his view corrupt, the two items which the law does not recognize being expenses incurred in the naturalization of "a large number of persons" and the payment of "a small amount for tax receipts." Mr. Coxe adds: "I purchased a number of tickets of raffles for cows, guns, etc., for the benefit of widows and other unfortunates, and expended a small amount for balls and fairs; but as they neither helped nor hurt me, I think I may neglect them." But his scrupulousness would, doubtless, have made him stick at these items also, if he had not already discovered sufficient obstacles to his taking the oath.

The late Thaddeus Stevens's comments on Mr. Coxe's resignation can easily be imagined, and they would not differ greatly from the secret judgment of Mr. Coxe's colleagues and constituents. From a purely moral point of view, however, his open confession of illegal acts can only be regarded as honorable in the extreme. What is curious is that his respect for the letter of the law did not extend to its spirit, and that he sees nothing improper in such "considerations" for voting as the purchase of naturalization papers or the payment of tax receipts. He, of course, knew that the voters thus created or redeemed were pledged *ipso facto* to vote the Democratic ticket bearing his name, and that the obligation was really not more different from that incurred by a man who was paid five dollars outright for voting, than settlement of an account by check from a settlement in coin. A large part of Mr. Coxe's outlay was for the prevention of frauds, a branch of "dissemination of information," inasmuch as the particular deceit feared was the substitution of counterfeit tickets for the "regular Democratic." Expenses of this nature ought either to be obviated or borne by the State, and we have no doubt that in time they will be; but as matters now stand it is only the rich who can secure either propagandism or protection, and, as Mr. Coxe admits, the number of hands—committees and workers and watchers—through whom the money flows, makes it impossible to provide against a corrupt use of it at some stage, especially as it is never accounted for.

It was an active week in Wall Street. The banks naturally enough gained in reserve in consequence of the Treasury disbursements and the return of currency from the interior, and the rates for foreign exchange fell to figures which again warrant gold imports. At the Stock Exchange the feature of the week was a rise in the price of Western Union Telegraph stock from 85½ to 103½. The prime mover in this specula-

tion was Jay Gould, who controls the opposition line, known as the American Union Telegraph Company, which is capitalized for about one-fourth the amount of the Western Union Telegraph, and connects by its wires nearly all the points from which the Western Union Telegraph derives its profits. It was therefore in a position to damage the latter, and the threat that it would be used to do so drove the price of Western Union Telegraph stock down from 110 to 77½. Large purchases of the stock having been made by Gould at the decline, the rumor is set afloat that the two companies are to be practically united, and the price of Western Union Telegraph stock is run up to 103½. No one at the end of the week seemed to know whether the two companies were to work in harmony or as opponents, but that was thought a minor matter so long as the market price of the stock suited the books of the speculators. The annual election of the Reading was not held on Monday, although the court refused to grant the petition asking for a postponement. The judge, however, while refusing the petition, went out of his way to say that no business of importance had better be attempted at the meeting. The representatives of a majority of the stock concluded not to take any risks, and they applied for an order of the court directing the managers to call a meeting within ten days. In the meantime Mr. Gowen remains in London, and issues the most astonishing reports respecting his strength, what the company will earn, etc., etc. No progress was made during the week in refunding legislation, but the prospect is not as good as it was that a 3 per cent. bond will be authorized. The price of silver bullion in London fell to 51d. per ounce, and the bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar to \$0.8507.

We published a fortnight ago what seemed to be irrefragable proof that Senator Dorsey made a great mistake in contradicting Mr. David A. Wells's assertion that cards containing forged citations from a pamphlet of the "Free-Trade Club," in London, were distributed by the Republican Committee. Mr. Dorsey denied that any such card had been "written, issued, or circulated by the Republican National Committee, or by the State, or by any local committee, in large or small numbers," and he called on Mr. Wells to tell us who was "responsible" for his "making so serious a charge without the slightest foundation in fact." We hoped by this time to have received from Mr. Dorsey some account of the mode in which he proposes to escape from the very awkward position in which Mr. Wells has now placed him, and trust that his silence indicates that he is "hunting the rascal down" who supplied the committees with the forged cards. The design of this person and his accomplices in the Committee was to cheat General Hancock out of the Presidency; or, in the language of Judge Davis, to "commit an appalling crime wholly at war with the safety and sanctity of popular government." As the same learned judge justly remarks, "it must be the wish of all honorable minds that this case will lead, not only to the discovery and exposure of the guilty, but to the enactment of laws which will prevent or severely punish offences of this character." What is Senator Dorsey doing about it?

The preparations for the "World's Fair" in this city, to be opened on the hundredth anniversary of the signing of the Treaty of Peace between Great Britain and the United States, have got so far that a meeting of the Commission has been held, at which there was much wrangling. It appears, however, that towards the \$12,000,000 which the project will require Mr. Vanderbilt offers \$250,000, if \$4,000,000 are raised. A good many other subscriptions have been promised in the same hypothetical way, making, if realized, about \$3,000,000 of this amount. A site has been selected but not yet secured, and the only thing certain beyond the preference of the Commissioners is the definitive abandonment of the plan of using the Central Park.

Parliament was opened on the 6th inst. The Queen's speech, which is, of course, important only for its announcements, made known that Candahar will not be permanently retained by the British Government, though its occupation, owing to the unsettled state of the country, will be continued a little longer; that the Boers will be put down; that additional powers will be given to the executive for the repression of disorder in Ireland; that the proposed land reform will consist in "a development of the principles" of the Land Act of 1870, "in a manner conformable to the special wants of Ireland, and with a view to effective

efforts giving to a larger portion of the people, by purchase, a permanent proprietary interest in the soil," and in some restriction on the power of entail by settlement, as well as in the establishment of representative county government, instead of the present government by grand juries composed of the leading landowners of the county.

The principles of the Land Act of 1870 are much talked about but little understood. They are briefly these: A landlord in the absence of a lease may eject a tenant from his farm without giving any reason, but if he do, it is in the eye of the law a "disturbance," which entitles the tenant to compensation, according to a sliding scale, in no case exceeding seven years' rent, or a maximum of \$1,250. But this only applies to tenancies under \$500 annual rental, and does not apply to any tenants who have leases for thirty-one years or upwards. The landlord may always eject a tenant for non-payment of rent, but should he do so, he must pay him for his unexhausted improvements, and no landlord of a farm of which the rent is over \$250 can contract himself out of the operation of the Act. Moreover, if the rent demanded, which the tenant is unable to pay, and for non-payment of which he has been ejected, is in the opinion of the court exorbitant, it will be held to be a "disturbance," entitling the tenant to compensation absolutely, whether he has any unexhausted improvements or not. In addition to this the act makes legal in those parts of the country in which it already prevailed the Ulster custom, or tenant-right, which gave the tenant the right to sell the good-will of the farm, even in the absence of a lease. But the good of this has been largely neutralized in practice by the landlord's right to raise the rent on the incoming tenant and thus destroy the value of the good-will, so that it is absolutely necessary to establish some tribunal competent to decide what a fair rent is.

The phraseology of the Queen's speech is so vague that many of the Liberals, both English and Irish, are afraid Mr. Gladstone is not ready to go far enough for the crisis. The Land Commission, which has been sitting and taking evidence on the whole question, has reported by a majority of three out of five substantially in favor of the "three F's," and the Ulster Protestants, while repudiating all connection with the Land League and its methods, have presented a strong memorial to Mr. Forster in favor of the same remedy, and complain bitterly of the practical abrogation of the Ulster custom by the arbitrary raising of rents. In fact, there seems to be an agreement among the bulk of the Liberals, both English and Irish, in favor of a pretty radical bill. The Tories, on the other hand, will hear of nothing but coercion. Grape-shot is their panacea. Lord Beaconsfield has denounced concession in the House of Lords, and Sir Stafford Northcote, in a speech out of doors, has declared the "three F's" to be "fraud, force, and folly."

Fortune has again favored Gambetta. The municipal elections which are now taking place in France, and which furnish the constituencies which are shortly to elect seventy-five senators, are not only thus far giving victory to the Republicans, like the late elections of the Councils-General, but they are giving victory to the Moderate or Opportunist wing of the Republicans. Not only are the Communists nowhere, but the Radicals, led by Clémenceau, who was supposed to be "the coming man," are nowhere. Clémenceau himself has been denounced by the Reds as too moderate, and has apparently lost his influence with them. In fact, Gambetta seems to be becoming master of the situation with a rapidity which is somewhat alarming, considering the historical tendency of French politics to make one man the embodiment of all the power of the Government. He may in the next Legislature be so influential as not only to be forced to take the premiership or the presidency, but forced to take somewhat openly the character of a necessary man, or protector of the Republic. The failure of the Monarchists to form a respectable opposition is, on the whole, one of the worst they have yet made. Their violence and absurdity are gradually driving them completely out of public life, and have given a great impetus to Gambetta's rise. It is the more curious because the tendency to succumb to the extremists has hitherto been supposed to be peculiar to the Republicans. It is safe to say, however, that their religious zeal—that is, their devotion to the Catholic Church—accounts for fully three-fourths of their defeat.

NEW YORK AS A MONEY MARKET.

THE "distinct lead which America takes in the markets of the world" has recently formed the subject of some very emphatic comments in the London *Daily News*, whose financial articles have long enjoyed a great deal of weight in England. This lead the writer ascribes to the "wealth, enterprise, and ready skill" of the people, to the practically unlimited natural resources of the country, to the "stable and peaceable form of government," and the freedom of American society from "the prejudice of caste" in the choice of occupations. Now no such country can lead very long in the markets of the world without becoming a "financial centre"—that is, without setting up a money market of its own, without providing a sort of fair in which capital from all parts of the world will come and wait to be hired. London has long had such a market. Venice and Amsterdam each had one before London. All these cities established their money markets under conditions much less favorable than those under which one might be established here. They had no vast natural resources, and were not in easy and almost instantaneous communication with all quarters of the globe. But they had a stable and peaceable form of government, an enterprising and skilful population. They were at peace when most other countries were at war, and concerned themselves comparatively little with the theological controversies about which Continental nations for so many generations cut people's throats and burnt them alive. These things, valuable as they were, would, however, hardly have sufficed to make a money market. One thing more was needed, and that they supplied, or more nearly supplied than any other country, viz., a stable standard of value. They made such arrangements, in short, as to their currency and banking that when a trader in any part of the world stipulated for future payment in either of these cities, he knew exactly what he would receive, and felt sure that nothing would happen, as far as the medium was concerned, before his debt fell due to lower its value; and the debtor who promised to pay felt sure that nothing would happen to make his promise to pay more onerous when he came to fulfil it than it was when he made it. When all these conditions are fulfilled in a commercial city dealers in money naturally settle in it as a good place to carry on their business. Those who do not deal in money but have it to spare, and wish to put it out at interest or speculate with it, send it to such a city, to be used by the dealers. Persons wishing to borrow in like manner go to such a city in search of their loans, feeling sure that they will there readily find the money, and on more favorable terms than elsewhere. Then the result of this is that, as many people all over the world wish to send money thither, drafts on such a place become a favorite mode of discharging obligations, and are in great demand everywhere. In one way or another, in short, it becomes a great reservoir to which money flows from the ends of the earth, to be drawn off as it is wanted.

The advantages of having such a reservoir or cistern on the national premises are obvious enough. Nobody but a Communist would deny them. The conditions of its creation in New York are all present but one, and that is stability of the currency. There can hardly be a doubt that with this the New York money market would, during the next twenty-five years, begin to put the pre-eminence of that of London in serious peril. As a field for the employment of capital there is nothing in the world now to be compared to this continent. Africa or South America may have as great a variety of natural resources, but they have not the same climate or government, or the same breed of men. The one drawback at present on New York as a financial centre is, that when a man sends money here he does not enjoy absolute certainty that he will get back as much as he gave. We have as yet no standard which the world trusts with that unwavering confidence which is necessary to perfect credit. Our credit is high, but it is not as high as the growth of the population and the unprecedented ease with which we are paying our debts ought to make it. Nor is this due to the actual condition of the currency. The paper of the Government is at par, and all its obligations have thus far been paid in the best currency known; and although there is some danger of a failure of the European market for our produce and a consequent withdrawal of gold, it is well-nigh neutralized by the extraordinary devotion of nearly all the great European nations to preparations for war. As long as the present tremendous drafts are

made on the population for the army in France, Italy, Austria, and Germany, overflowing plenty in Europe is not likely, let the harvest be never so good.

The cloud on our financial horizon is not a heavy, black one. The sky is simply overcast, and the look of the weather is doubtful. What shuts out the blue is simply the peculiar state of opinion begotten in the West about all financial questions, and about all dealers in money and owners of capital, by the issue and prolonged use of paper legal tenders. The legal tenders and the national bank currency, which was based on them, were undoubtedly a great improvement on the paper money which preceded them, but they have had the unfortunate effect of giving "cheap money"—that is, money of little or no intrinsic value—a respectability, and even dignity, which it never had before in this country. There has always been a hankering after "cheap money" by people in debt, but it was, down to 1860, looked on even by them as a temporary expedient. For permanent use people desired gold or silver, whichever was highest and steadiest in value. The longing for cheap money—that is, for money with comparatively small purchasing power—as a good thing to *maintain* for the poor and struggling, is, we believe, an absolutely new passion, which has shown itself since the war and as a consequence of the success of our irredeemable greenbacks. The most serious thing about the cheap-money idea, too, is that it is almost impossible to banish it by argument, because the man who does not see its delusiveness at a glance is rarely a person on whom any demonstration will produce much effect. It is, too, in the case of silver, most unfortunately mixed up with and gets the benefit of the idea of protection to native industry. That is, the indifference to the stability of the standard has gone so far that very large numbers of persons in the West place it in importance far below the encouragement of American mining industry. There are a great many men in Congress—some of them have spoken within the last few days—who are not in the least affected by any picture that can be drawn of the consequences of the continued coinage of silver to the national credit or to the currency, as long as they are assured that it keeps up the demand for silver at the mines. Some who might not advocate it for the sake of encouraging native industry alone, or for the sake of "cheap money" alone, support it without hesitation when they see, or think they see, that it will accomplish both objects.

Coupled with this eagerness for money of comparatively low purchasing power and unstable value, there has grown up a deep distrust of the whole class of financiers—that is, of the class which has the management of the uninvested capital of the civilized world. The whole West has during the last ten years been taught to regard them as the mediæval barons regarded the Jews, namely, as persons with interests hostile to the rest of the community. The desire of this class for a stable and single standard of value is treated as a love of "dear money," which is thought of as a rich man's luxury, like diamonds, or India shawls, or a fine house. Behind this, too, there is a vague belief that men who control large amounts of capital spend what they make on themselves in some form of personal indulgence. These feelings have been fostered by the contests with the great railroad men, and by the undoubted fact that the syndicates, through which so much of the public debt has been refunded, have, in making terms with the Government for taking charge of the operation, had for the moment an interest opposed to that of the public, as every person whom the Government employs has at the moment of making the bargain. They have become so strong that General Garfield is said to be afraid to put an Eastern man in the Treasury lest the West should suspect him of being the agent of the "money kings" of New York and Europe. Whatever justification or excuse there may be for all this, there is no doubt that it is likely to have an unfortunate effect on the future of American finance. It prevents the most skilled opinion of the country from having its legitimate influence on a most important branch both of legislation and administration, and puts what is most delicate in the machinery of state, its credit and currency, practically under the exclusive control of those who have given least attention to and have had least experience of its working. That this state of things will last for some years there is little doubt. It will take several years to wear out the belief that a grand and beneficent discovery was made by the issue

of irredeemable paper money during the war, and that as this money was cheap, the cheaper money is the better it is. This belief produced, in the first instance, the greenbackers pure and simple; it next produced the silver-men, who are simply convalescent greenbackers, able to sit out-of-doors in the sun and do light work, but not yet fit to be discharged from the hospital. The dread of the "money kings" will linger for a good while, too, and lead to many crude and barbarous financial experiments. But all these will pass with time, like most of the other unfortunate legacies of the war, and will be smiled over as pleasantly in Chicago and Omaha ten years hence as they now are in New York and Boston.

MAYOR GRACE ON THE NEED OF MUNICIPAL REFORM.

THE new Mayor, Mr. Grace, in his annual message, demands once more some approach to self-government for the city. He shows that it is the chief seat of wealth and commerce in America, and has a population equal to one-third of that of the United States at the time of the foundation of the Union, and greater than the entire population of New Hampshire, Delaware, Florida, Virginia, Nevada, and Colorado, which have between them twelve United States Senators, and each of which has supreme control over its own domestic affairs. He mentions also, what is perhaps more to the purpose, that while the valuation of real estate in the State of New York for purposes of taxation in the year 1879 was \$2,233,669,913, that of the city of New York amounted to \$1,049,340,336, or nearly one-half, the inequality of which, he justly observes, is manifest. Nevertheless, the city enjoys nothing in the shape of home rule. The Mayor has very little power, the Board of Aldermen has still less, and, in fact, the charter is framed with the view of preventing any branch of the city government from having much power. In the absence of power, of course, there is very little responsibility. There is no officer of the city government who cannot find in his official feebleness a very good defence for almost any shortcoming with which he may be charged. We are glad to say that no attempt was made at the late election to put up a "reform mayor," and pretend that if we only elected him the long night of our troubles would be over, and that purity and efficiency would at last reign in the management of municipal affairs. Nothing has done more of late years to divert attention from the real difficulties of the municipal problem than these "uprisings" in favor of some municipal saviour. They have been going on now for twenty-five years, and always with the same result—disappointment ending in disgust and apathy; and it is time that the press and the public were ashamed of them.

The account of the condition of the city which each incoming mayor has to give is a national disgrace. Nothing like the filth of the streets and the state of the pavements is to be found in any city of Christendom, and in saying this we mean to describe literally and not to make a rhetorical flourish. The lighting is very bad, owing to the quality of the gas. The sewerage, as described by the mayor, is also very bad. The administration of justice in the police courts is marked by a carelessness, flippancy, and indecency which no one who considers the extent to which these courts represent to the very poor the morality and civilization of the community, can witness without shame and pain. No municipal prisons or municipal charities in any Christian city are managed by a class so ill-qualified for their work as those of New York, and in none does the interest of the criminals and paupers count for less in the selection of those who are to have the official care of them. The Board of Aldermen is a sort of legislative caricature, composed in the main of illiterate and poor men drawn from the lowest walks of life. No such body meets as the representatives of a commercial community in any other country of the western world. There are, in fact, probably not over four or five men connected with the city government who would not be out of place and ill at ease in any company of moderately educated persons. We say deliberately that no such spectacle as the New York City government presents was witnessed after the fall of the Roman Empire until the carpet-bag legislatures met at the South. It has been often depicted and much discussed, and has lasted now for nearly thirty years, and we see no sign of speedy improvement. But if improvement is ever to

come, it must come through the recognition by the people of the city and State of the less obvious causes of the evil, and through the abandonment by the city press of the presentation of little quack remedies, such as the withdrawal of the Tammany charter, or the overthrow of the reigning Boss, or the attendance of "the substantial men" at the primaries. It is a fashion among the "substantial men" to ascribe all the municipal misfortunes to the vote of "ignorant foreigners"; and a good many Republicans in their late controversies with the South have, by way of encouraging the South-Carolinians and Mississippians to submit to negro government, pointed with a kind of disingenuous pride to the government of New York City as an example of the reverence of people of intelligence and property at the North for majority rule. We do not know what impression this argument has made at the South, but if Southerners were familiar with the facts of municipal history in New York it would make very little.

The municipal misgovernment and degradation began to show themselves simultaneously with the passage of the State majority to the Republican party, leaving that of the city in the Democratic party, nearly thirty years ago. Never since the Republicans secured control of the Legislature have they shown any disposition whatever to allow the city to be ruled by universal suffrage, or to entrust it with complete management of its own affairs. In other words, they have carefully avoided making the experiment which they recommend to the South-Carolinians and Mississippians. They have done this by refusing to allow any city charter, or system of city government, to be embodied in the State constitution, so that the power of making and "tinkering" charters remains in the State Legislature, and by limiting in every charter the direct action of universal suffrage on municipal affairs—in other words, by withdrawing a large number of municipal functions from its control, or by requiring the approval of the State Legislature for local taxation. By the aid of the powers thus reserved they have for a long time been able to make bargains with the Boss, who controls the really ignorant vote of the city, and obtain help from him at State and Federal elections, which gives them a direct interest in the maintenance of the Boss system. The convenience to the State Republican "machine" of having a large venal and ignorant vote in this city controlled by one man is very great. It makes negotiation easy, and in the negotiation the power of the Legislature over the city is used with great effect. In fact, it furnishes the *quid pro quo* by which the Boss is brought to terms, and induced to "sell out" his own party in the State and nation. It is an essential feature in this system that the Mayor and Board of Aldermen, who are elected by universal suffrage, should have no power, and they have none accordingly. It is essential, too, that in order to quiet the minds of the taxpayers the majority should have no direct control of the city revenues, and yet have the fact of their exclusion disguised from them. This has been dextrously accomplished either by requiring the approval of the Legislature for the municipal taxes, or by giving the power of audit and apportionment, as at present, to a Board only one of whose members, the Mayor, is directly elected by the people. As long, therefore, as the State Legislature and the Federal "machine" in the State belongs to one party, and the local majority to another, and the main interest of the Republican leaders of the State lies in the distribution of patronage and not in questions relating to the public welfare and calling for legislation, we see no great prospect of any change for the better in municipal politics; none at all, certainly, of real local self-government. No change would suit the views either of the local Boss or of the Republican machinists.

An attempt was made in 1876, by the Municipal Commission appointed under the Concurrent Resolution of 1875, to make a radical change by proposing substantially the insertion of a city charter in the State constitution, where the Legislature could not get at it, which Mayor Grace now calls for. It also provided in this charter for the limitation of the power of running in debt by the city government, which he also calls for. It made changes in the city constitution impossible except on the demand by resolution of the Board of Finance and of the Board of Aldermen, approved by the Mayor, or by an act passed by two successive legislatures. It made the Board of Aldermen, elected by universal suffrage, the real city legislature, and had it been adopted the city would have been for the first time in fifty years really self-governing. For the present Board of Apportionment, which now contains

only one elected officer, it substituted a Board of Finance or Audit elected by persons paying taxes on five hundred dollars' worth of property, or paying two hundred and fifty dollars rent, as the portion of the community which, roughly speaking, has the most active interest in preventing municipal waste or extravagance. This Board was to have no power of any kind except the revision of the annual estimates, and the confirmation of the comptroller and the corporation counsel. There was no objection made to any feature of the scheme in any quarter, except the trifling restriction put on the suffrage in the election of the Board of Finance. It put the government of the city fully into the hands of the majority of its inhabitants, as the government of the State is put in that of the majority of its inhabitants. Had it been adopted the experiment of local self-government would have been fairly tried in this city for the first time since its present greatness came upon it, and the city offices and revenues would have ceased to constitute a fertile source of corruption both in State and Federal politics. Probably, however, for this very reason it did not suit the purpose of the managing men on either side to allow it to be tried. The Republican majority in the Legislature refused to submit it to the people, and the cry was raised among the lower class of demagogues in this city that it was a plan for "disfranchising the masses." What the people thought of it was never ascertained, however, and is not known to this day. Inasmuch as the proposed restriction on the suffrage was no greater than that which is authorized and practised in the matter of raising taxes in the government of villages all over the State, this undoubtedly did not constitute the real objection to it in the minds of those who were most instrumental in stopping it in the Legislature. The real objection was that it promised the withdrawal from State and municipal politics of the materials for the perennial "dickers" and "trades" which constitute the chief interest and occupation of the class which most concerns itself with municipal politics both in this city and Albany. We were thrown back once more on the old expedient of "uprising" to elect a reform mayor, who, we well knew, could not reform if he would, and who was armed with just enough power to enable him now and then to make "bargains" which, whatever their immediate result, can only in the long run deepen municipal corruption, and deepen the hopelessness and apathy of all the taxpaying class about municipal improvement.

PROFESSOR TAIT AND HERBERT SPENCER.

THERE is a strange tendency among mathematicians and men of science to dabble in metaphysics as they advance in years. The metaphysicians say that this tendency is caused by a craving for richer mental food. The physicists who remain true, and have not yet abjured the definite philosophy for the indefinite, on the other hand, maintain that as a man grows older he is less inclined to the hard task of bringing his vagaries to the test of accurate experiment, and prefers to revel in regions of metaphysics where he cannot be tracked by those sleuth-hounds, the working physicists. There is no doubt that scientific investigation tends to make a man sceptical of the value of metaphysics, and hence what may be called a new school of philosophy has grown up in late years—the school of Experimental Philosophy. Of this school Professor Tait, who occupies the chair of Physics in the University of Edinburgh, is a most notable example. His views on metaphysics are set forth in a course of lectures by him which have been published under the head of 'Recent Advances in Physical Science.' In a late article he says, in speaking of the dogma, so called, *Causa æquat effectum*:

"It is difficult to decide whether the Latinity or the (semi-obscure) sense is in this dogma the more incorrect. The fact is, that we have not yet quite cast off that tendency to so-called metaphysics which has often completely blasted the already promising career of a physical enquirer. I say 'so-called' metaphysics because there is a science of metaphysics, but, from the very nature of the case, the professed metaphysician will never attain to it. . . . Within the last fifty years we have had philosophers, like Hegel, saying that the motion of the heavenly bodies is not a being pulled this way and that; that they go along, as the ancients said, like blessed gods ('Naturphilosophie,' § 269). . . . There is nothing physical to be learned *à priori*. We have no right whatever to ascertain a single physical truth without seeking for it physically, unless it be a necessary consequence of other truths already acquired by experiment, in which case mathematical reasoning is alone requisite."

These extracts sufficiently explain Professor Tait's attitude, which is eminently Scotch. The sympathizers with this school commend to the metaphysicians the example of certain denizens of pools which suddenly bury themselves in a cloud of mud on the approach of that keen-sighted, proper, the

modern physicist. The metaphysicians, on the other hand, lament the narrowness of vision of the microscopist and the spectroscopist, bewail their want of liberality and imagination, and entreat them to give "largeness of meaning" to certain words and phrases.

An amusing discussion has lately been going on in *Nature* between Professor Tait and Mr. Herbert Spencer, which, we imagine, has tickled the metaphysicians who are distrustful of Mr. Spencer's school, at the same time that it has united them with him in a common attitude of defence against this hard-headed Scotchman. The dispute does not rise very much at times above the level of mud-pelting, but still it is interesting to the student of the phases of human speculation. In a lecture delivered October 26, 1880, Professor Tait remarked:

"With observation and experiment as our sole sources of information, we have no right in physical science to introduce *à priori* reasoning. We may (unprofitably, of course) speculate on what things might have been, but we must not dogmatize on what they ought to have been; we must simply try to discover what they are. For aught that we can tell, the properties of matter, and physical laws in general, might have been other than we find them to be. How can any one of us tell whether his conscious self might not have been associated in life with the body of an Eskimo or of a New-Zealander instead of with what he (no doubt) considers its much preferable tenement? Speculations of such a kind must always be wholly unproductive and unprofitable, but for all that we cannot but allow that they are not intrinsically absurd."

Professor Tait, having laid himself open to criticism by this and similar remarks, and by certain ridicule of Mr. Spencer, and having apparently violated his own canons by the publication of 'The Unseen Universe'—which certainly is speculative enough for the most imaginative school of philosophers—Mr. Spencer retaliates, and asks, concerning the above remark, "Does this express an experimentally ascertained truth? If so, I invite Professor Tait to describe the experiments." Professor Tait thereupon enquires what species of "mental peculiarity" his critic exhibits when he seriously asks him whether he had proved *by experiment* that a thing might have been what it is not. It is chiefly, however, against a striking peculiarity of the Spencerian school—that of obtaining all-embracing, simple formulas for the most complex relations—that Professor Tait levels his lance. He quotes the following so-called formula of Mr. Spencer: "Evolution is a change from an indefinite, incoherent homogeneity to a definite, coherent heterogeneity, through continuous differentiations and integrations," and translates it thus into plain English: "Evolution is a change from a nohowish, untalkaboutable all-alikeness to a somehowish and in general talkaboutable not-all-alikeness, by continuous something-elsifications and stick-togetherations." Tait maintains that the above formula, like its translation, is not a formula but a definition, and adds that Mr. Kirkman's recently-discovered formula of Universal Change—"Change is a perichoretical synechy of pamparallagmatic and horroteropoeumatical differentiations and integrations"—is also a definition and not a formula.

To these attacks of Professor Tait and his henchman, Mr. Kirkman, Mr. Spencer replies at length, denying that he is in love with the word formula rather than the word definition; yet at the same time he stoutly maintains his belief that, giving it largeness of meaning, his formula expresses the truth of evolution as exactly as the formula of gravitation would express the interacting agencies of star-clusters to Professor Tait, if that physicist were translated to some unseen universe. He reminds his opponent that the positions of planets and satellites admit of definite prevision only because the forces which appreciably affect them are few; and that he ignores the fact that where other such forces, not easily measured, come into play, the previsions are imperfect and often wholly wrong, as in the case of comets. He commends Professor Tait to the reading of the 'First Principles,' wherein he has shown that not only other orders of changes, but even social changes, are predictable in respect to their general if not in respect to their special characters. In this retort Spencer exhibits again his tendency to formulate complex relations in simple terms, and does not appreciate that sense of restraint and the step-by-step process of enquiry which lead Professor Tait to believe in the universality of the formula for gravitation only so far as its past "record" is a good one. The experimental process is ahead of its devotees. When Professor Tait speculates he unconsciously joins the ranks of the followers of Mr. Spencer, and is driven back by weapons like those he has borrowed from their arsenal. Like Mr. Veinor, who prophesies in regard to the weather months ahead from some all-embracing formulas, Mr. Spencer prophesies in regard to social changes. The cautious physicist and meteorologist does not venture to predict until the storm is brewing and he has watched its progress. We should support Professor Tait much more heartily in his attitude towards simple formulas for complex relations if he were more loyal to his own school, and we think that in invading Mr. Spencer's precincts he will be conquered by the set phrases and the technical language of the metaphysician.

Nothing daunted, however, Professor Tait boldly advances to the contest with cacophonous words and mathematical formulas. These formulas, notwithstanding their extreme simplicity, blanch the cheeks, we can imagine, of the Spencerian philosophers. Upon his remarking that we might h . . . be

Eskimos, Mr. Spencer pays his respects to the impenetrability of his opponent's intellect, and fires this metaphysical language at him :

"Now, the elements of the proposition before us are these: As 'the properties of matter might have been such as to render a totally different set of laws axiomatic,' [therefore] 'these laws [now in force] must be considered as resting . . . not on intuitive perception:' that is, the intuitions in which these laws are recognized must not be held authoritative. Here the cognition posited as premiss is, that the properties of matter might have been other than they are; and the conclusion is that our intuitions relative to existing properties are uncertain. Hence, if this conclusion is valid, it is valid because the cognition or intuition respecting what might have been is more trustworthy than the cognition or intuition respecting what is!"

Here we admire Mr. Spencer, and we devoutly hope that he will recognize where he is strong. Professor Tait is rash when he steps upon Mr. Spencer's ground, but so is Mr. Spencer when he ventures upon Professor Tait's domain, and attacks the latter's definition of force thus :

"Professor Tait says, 'Force is the rate at which an agent does work per unit of length,' and also force is implied to be that which changes the state of a body, or, in modern language, does work upon it. I contend that these definitions are irreconcilable with one another, and I do not see that Professor Tait has done anything to reconcile them. True, he has given us some mathematics by which he considers the reconciliation to be effected; and possibly some readers, awed by his equations, and forgetting that in symbolic operations, carried on no matter how vigorously, the worth of what comes out depends wholly on what is put in, will suppose that Professor Tait must be right. If, however, his mathematics prove that while force is an agent which does work, it is also the rate at which an agent does work, then I say—so much the worse for his mathematics."

This is in answer to a mathematical shot from Professor Tait, which is strong from his point of view, but weak from Mr. Spencer's view, because the latter is as ignorant of the set definitions and phrases of the physicist as his opponent is weak in the school phrases of logic. The point which Professor Tait makes is this: we can speak in general terms of force as an agent in much the same way that we use the expressions, "The sun rises," "The wind blows," but we cannot get a definite idea of force save from certain relations in kinetic energy. He is open to attack in asserting that work is a real thing, while momentum is not. On the other hand, Mr. Spencer evidently thinks that a definition of force can be framed which will state what force is, independently of the consideration of ratios. Here we have the spectacle of two able men befogging each other, both endeavoring to escape from the limitations of their own schools and to express complex relations by simple formulas. The work of the physicist is to study the transformations of Energy by the introduction of definite systems of measurement based upon units of space, time, and velocity, and not to frame in a definition of force a complex relation which will surely be attacked by a metaphysician who is not accustomed to think as an experimentalist does.

Correspondence.

THE GERMAN PRESS ON AMERICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "I. S. E." makes charges against the press of Germany which should not go entirely unchallenged. I have read German newspapers and periodicals for many years, and find them on an average as well informed on American topics as American journals are on German affairs. I have sent many letters on American topics to conservative German newspapers, and have found intelligent editors, pleasant readers, and fair rewards. No German editor has ever pretended to change my letters, while I have made it my special duty to write only of the pleasantest things I could find. My letters in the *North German Gazette*, of Berlin, are usually signed with my full name, and that journal is the avowed supporter of Prince Bismarck, thoroughly conservative and decidedly Prussian, while my own interest in Prussian affairs is precisely the same which I take in French and English matters. Nevertheless, the editor desires me to send him more letters than I am in the habit of writing. I do not know why the *Cologne Gazette* should be singled out as the foremost German newspaper. It resembles the so-called Liberal papers of other countries, and has nothing distinctively German in it. It is as cosmopolitan as some American newspapers imagine they are.

What your correspondent "I. S. E." says of the "reptile-press" is a favorite complaint of German Liberals, so-called. In my opinion the little charge is on a par with the belief current among some Americans that the press of this country is occasionally bribed by the national banks, the English free-traders, or the politicians. If "I. S. E." will supply good American correspondents, I think I shall have less difficulty in finding good publishers, pleasant readers, and fair salaries for them. But good correspondence must be written in faultless German; it must contain news only, and the news

must have value in Germany. By news I do not mean startling occurrences and other sensations, but a faithful and loving account of the weekly and monthly progress in what is noblest, sweetest, and best in American society. Letters thoroughly American in tone are preferred, while mere opinions and "racy writing" should be avoided.

C. W. ERNST.

BOSTON, MASS., January 3, 1881.

INJUSTICE TO BODENSTEDT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your publication of December 30 contains a Buffalo correspondence, signed "I. S. E.," the closing sentence of which is calculated to give the American reader who has not read Bodensiedt's letters concerning America an entirely incorrect and unjust opinion of the character, genius, and writings of that remarkable poet and writer. In order to show you and your readers how unjust "I. S. E.'s" statement is, I subjoin a carefully-prepared extract from the letter in which Bodensiedt gives the general impression which our great country and people made on him. I have translated it from *Ueber Land und Meer*, the Stuttgart periodical in which it first appeared:

"Whoever is not sadly in the bonds of prejudice must recognize that in contemplating this so young and yet so powerful, this yet unfinished New World, which, nevertheless, even now exerts such a marvellous influence on the fate of the human race, one must use an entirely different standard from what would be admissible in judging the Old World with its thousand years of history. In the Old World, through the course of centuries, against innumerable obstacles, everything has developed and shaped itself slowly. In the New World everything seems to have originated under a quick, general impulse since the country tore itself away from the hindering guardianship of England, in order to become, with its rich resources and its fortunate location, a free home-land for all those to whom the beloved native land hardly afforded sustenance, for those whom it was too narrow to allow a proper development of their faculties, as well as those who were driven across the ocean by their Germanic love of journeying or bold spirit of enterprise. History shows no other example of a country which has offered to the immigrant settlers of all nationalities so wide and free a field for remunerative labor as America, where their faculties, competing for development, find no other limits than those set by laws which they, though strangely mixed, yet strongly united as one people, make for themselves through representatives of their own choosing.

"The very variety and multifariousness of the people who have thus torn themselves away from the Old World in order to form a new nation beyond the Atlantic best explains the incomparably quick and grand growth of this people, as well as many strangely pleasing and displeasing peculiarities in their appearance. The immigrant from the old civilized countries brings with him faculties developed there, experience gathered there, into a young country where his old way of working is insufficient, where a high tension of his powers is necessary to keep pace in the competition with the native American, who is unsurpassed in enterprise, skill, industry, and perseverance in whatever work he undertakes. This unflagging competition on the part of able representatives of all civilized nations of the Old World is the father of progress in the New, which has already outdone us Europeans in many respects, most of all in the ease, comfort, and speed of its trade, communication, and intercourse.

"The United States have also been greatly aided by the fact that nature has with a lavish hand bestowed on the country advantages which have, more than in the case of any other nation, lightened for its people the execution of great and fruitful enterprises. By its fortunate position between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans the North American Union of States forms in its vast extent almost a world for itself, the inhabitants of which have no borders to protect, no external foe to fear, and can, therefore, give their entire power to the useful pursuits of peace for personal profit and for the increase of their national wealth. Whoever wishes to build up something new here need not first clear away the debris of centuries to make room. Here one need not combat hereditary prejudices to open the way for progress. Here the people do not complain of the present, looking mournfully back to the past, remembering 'the good old days,' but there is a steady rush forward towards a future in the greatness of which every one of the advancing host has implicit confidence," etc.

But enough of this translation, which is as nearly verbal as can be given, and which shows sufficiently Bodensiedt's breadth of view and comprehension. So far his letters of travel, which I have perused with great interest. He has also expressed himself in German poetry concerning the beauty and grandeur of nature in this country. His "Valley of the Yosemite" is a poem of extraordinary beauty. By publishing the above you will do an act of justice, and greatly oblige

Yours respectfully,

FRANK SILLER.

MILWAUKEE, January 2, 1881.

COMMON SENSE IN MISSISSIPPI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Weekly Clarion*, a newspaper published at Jackson, Miss., in its issue of the 30th ult., reprints from the *Planters' Journal* (see slip from the *Clarion* enclosed) an article by the Rev. Charles B. Galloway, of Vicksburg, Miss., upon the "Brightening Prospects of the South."

This writer presents the following as some of the "duties that now imperatively claim Southern attention": (1) The cultivation of "a more hopeful, cheerful spirit," and consequently an abandonment of "chronic mourning," which latter frame of mind has been rebuked by "the Northern papers, notably the New York Herald"; (2) the adoption of "that utilitarian spirit which so eminently characterizes the New-Englander, and which has made the barren rocks of Massachusetts become fountains of flowing plenty," thus discarding a system of education which has merely produced men "great" in "the discussion of the theory of government, the nature of the federal compact, and all issues that affected the general Government, rather than those local questions of development and enterprise which have so wonderfully enriched the North and East"; (3) the cultivation of "a spirit of confidence" which, by removing the suspicion that "has stayed the march of commercial prosperity," will bring capital Southward to a section than which none "promises richer reward to labor and money"; (4) "less aspiration to political leadership," and a determination to "win our way, not by politics, but by honest labor and rigid economy," and to look upon "leadership in national politics" as undesirable for many years to come.

I may add that the *Clarion* is a fiercely Democratic paper, enjoying a fair circulation in Mississippi. During the last few months I have noticed in its columns several items eulogistic of Mr. Galloway, from which it is reasonable to infer that he is well regarded by some Mississippi Democrats. Truly, the heaven has begun to work!

B. S. L.

BOSTON, January 7, 1881.

REORGANIZATION OF THE SUPREME COURT.

[THE following communication, though not designed for publication, we take the liberty of printing without the writer's name.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Being one of the district judges, I have felt restrained by considerations of delicacy from offering through your columns some contribution to the discussion concerning the best method of relieving the Supreme Court; nor do I now wish to appear in public on the subject. I write this letter, however, in the hope that, if approved by you, the suggestions I make will influence your editorial recommendations to that extent they may deserve.

The letter of your Rochester correspondent, in No. 809, is almost precisely in the line of reformation that should be adopted, as it seems to me. The crudities and incongruities of the present system of inferior courts are only tolerated because so few people understand them. Indeed, comparatively few lawyers, even among those doing considerable practice in the courts, understand them, and perhaps not half a dozen members of Congress are aware of them. The substitution of circuit judges for circuit justices, or rather the interjection of those judges into the system some ten years ago, only increased and confused the difficulties it was supposed would be remedied. I shall not undertake to point out these defects, but am content to formulate the suggestions I offer to the general consideration of yourself and others interested in the subject. Before doing this, allow me to ask if it would not be a good plan to organize a commission composed partly of members of Congress and partly of the judges of all grades, to consider and report to Congress upon the whole subject?

1. Abolish the Circuit Courts as now organized, and confer their original jurisdiction on district courts to be held by a single judge, there being a sufficient number of districts and judges to do the work.

2. Organize a High Court of Errors and Appeals in each circuit, as now constituted, to be composed of the present circuit judge and two others, one session to be held each year in the capital city of each State. It is not necessary that this court should visit the several districts. To this court give appellate jurisdiction in all cases from the district courts, under such guarantees against frivolous appeals for delay as wisdom may suggest.

3. Let the decision of the High Court be final in all cases, unless the Supreme Court of the United States shall grant a writ of error or appeal, by the concurrence of not less than three justices signing the fiat and certifying that they have examined the record and find that it is a case which should be reviewed in that court.

If it be said that this would be only trying every case upon an application for appeal, the answer to the objection is that with the experience of these judges, and under rules of practice prescribed by themselves, this difficulty would be reduced to the minimum and be less, perhaps, than that presented by any other plan. When the applicant for appeal knows that at his own cost he must present a printed record to three of the justices of that august tribunal, and show to them, not that his case showed error, but that it was of importance that the legal principles involved should pass under review in the court of ultimate resort, he would have a care that the case should be really of that importance. Practically, after the system was fairly at work, the cases going to the Supreme Court would be only those where there had been serious and substantial conflict of decision in the High Courts of Appeal; and

such as involved important Constitutional or other questions of federal jurisprudence as contradistinguished from the ordinary common-law or equity cases. The determination of what cases shall go to the Supreme Court can be left to no more satisfactory tribunal than that court itself. It would not be overburdened with cases, and the public interest would be entirely safe in its hands. The cases already there could be transferred to the respective High Courts for determination and the new system go at once into operation.

Yours truly,

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Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS' announcements for the new year include Leslie Stephen's 'History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century'; Prof. E. H. Palmer's 'Haroun al Raschid and Saracen Civilization'; 'Natural Theology,' by President Bascom, of the University of Wisconsin; 'European Modes of Living—Apartment Houses,' by S. G. Young; 'The Cause of Color among Races, and the Evolution of Physical Beauty,' by W. Sharpe, M.D.; 'The Journal of a Farmer's Daughter,' by Elaine Goodale; and a series of biographies of "English Philosophers," which will at some points—*e. g.*, Locke and Hume—coincide with the "English Men of Letters."—Harper & Bros. publish this week A. R. Wallace's 'Island Life'; the 'Wordsworth' of the "English Men of Letters"; and vol. ii. of Forney's 'Recollections of Public Men.'—An American novel by Col. Forney is announced as in press by D. Appleton & Co., who will also bring out a new novel by George MacDonald, 'Mary Marston.'—'Sir William Herschel, his Life and Works,' by Prof. E. S. Holden, of the U. S. Naval Observatory, is in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons, who have also nearly ready a new edition, revised and corrected by Prof. Sayce, of the late George Smith's 'Chaldean Account of Genesis'; 'Christian Institutions: Essays on Ecclesiastical Subjects,' by Dean Stanley; and St. George Mivart's 'The Cat,' an introduction to the study of back-boned animals; also, the third and fourth volumes of Metternich's Memoirs.—D. Albertis's 'New Guinea' and the 'Life and Correspondence of Sir Anthony Panizzi,' by Louis Fagan, will bear the American imprint of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The same house promises 'Life and Correspondence of the Rt. Rev. Samuel Seabury, First Bishop of Connecticut and of the Episcopal Church in the United States,' by the Rev. E. E. Beardsley, D.D.—Miss Alger has translated and Roberts Bros. will publish Coquelin's 'The Actor and his Art.'—Jansen, McClurg & Co. publish immediately 'Familiar Talks on English Literature, from 449 to 1832,' by Mrs. Abby Sage Richardson. It is especially designed to interest the young.—The Smithsonian Institution has published, as No. 330 of its Miscellaneous Collections, a biography of James Smithson, by William J. Rhees. The materials for it were extremely meagre, and they have been far from skilfully used. A number of portraits of Smithson, a fac-simile of his will, a view of his grave, etc., adorn the volume, which includes the already published extracts from Smithson's scientific writings.—The opening article in the *American Naturalist* for January is on the "Ancient Glaciers of the Rocky Mountains," by Archibald Geikie, Director of the Geological Survey, Scotland. Its details concerning the evidences of glaciation in the Yellowstone Valley will be found fresh and interesting to tourists. The writer supposes the glacier of the Wind River Mountains and the Tetons to have discharged itself through this valley, which is now not connected with their watershed. The *Naturalist*, by the way, begins the year with eighty-eight pages of reading matter and a prosperous look.—The January issue of the *Magazine of American History* is a "Yorktown Number," and gives a portrait of Comte de Grasse, a view of the house which was the scene of capitulation, fac-similes of several old maps, etc., etc. Mr. B. F. De Costa also contributes a bibliography of Verrazano. Prof. Henry P. Johnston, by the way, has, in a letter to the Congressional Committee on the Yorktown monument, controverted the view of the editor of the *Magazine* that the marble column originally ordered (1781) was to commemorate the Franco-American alliance, and not simply the victory over Cornwallis.—A valuable contribution to the theory of spelling-reform is H. Paul's "Zur Orthographischen Frage" in the *Deutsche Zeit- und Streitfragen*. Though the author considers the case of his own language only, the principles he lays down are applicable to every other. He preserves throughout a rare and praiseworthy moderation in discussing the views of those who differ from him in opinion.—In *Le Livre* for December the most liberal praise is awarded the *American Art Review*, both for its contents and for the quality of its wood-engraving and typography. Similarly, *St. Nicholas* is pronounced an "étonnant journal." Two discoveries are mentioned: one, of the name of the miniaturist of the famous 'Heures' of Anne de Bretagne, viz., Jean Bourdichon, a Lyonnese painter; the other, of memoirs of Lucien Bonaparte in the author's own MS. These will be published. So, by a sort of per contra, will the correspondence of the late Pierre Lanfrey, the anti-Napoleonic historian. As an illustration of orthographic latitude we find *Tourgueneff* and *Tourgeniew* on one page (389).

Apropos of our French correspondence on V. Hugo is Champfleury's article, "L'Art et la Littérature Romantique," with fac-simile vignettes. The sample plate ("Faust") of Charles Blanc's edition of Rembrandt's complete works makes us fear that this much-vaunted reproduction falls very far short of the standard held out to subscribers. Amand-Durand is still good enough for us.

—Among all the ranks and classes thinned by death during the year just elapsed the theatrical profession suffered, perhaps, as conspicuously as any. The comedians, John Brougham, "Yankee" Locke, George Honey, Mrs. Charles Kean (Ellen Tree), Adelaide Neilson; and the playwrights J. R. Planche and Tom Taylor (to whom may be added Epes Sargent, in consideration of his having written a successful play for Miss Tree, among others) make a list covering nearly three generations. Closely connected with them are the operatic composer Jacques Offenbach, and the virtuosi Ole Bull and Henry Wieniawski. Of actors on the political stage mention may first be made of Emmanuel Costaki Epureano, the Rumanian statesman who led the movement for the independence of his country in 1848. Jules Favre and Isaac Crémieux, colleagues in the Government of the National Defence; their political opponent, the Duc de Gramont; the Belgian Prince de Ligne; the Italian statesman "of the old rock," Baron Ricasoli; the English diplomat, Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe; George Brown, a journalist, but often for Canada a premier without a portfolio; in our own country the respected ex-Senators James Bayard and Lafayette S. Foster, with Herschel V. Johnson, of Georgia; the reconstructed fire-eater, Henry S. Foote, of Mississippi, and ex-Gov. William Bigler, of Pennsylvania, conclude the tale. No great military or naval light was extinguished in 1880, but General Joseph Vinoy, the successor of Trochu, and liberator of Paris from the Commune, was an excellent soldier, and in our own service the same could be said of Generals George Sykes and Samuel P. Heintzelman; while our navy lost officers of equal worth in Rear-Admiral C. K. Stribling and Commodore Homer C. Blake.

—The two greatest names in science may be deemed Benjamin Peirce and Michel Chasles; the latter famous, a dozen years ago, as the victim of a stupendous forgery of letters purporting to have been written by Newton, Pascal, Galileo, etc. Paul Broca, the eminent anthropologist; Sir Benjamin C. Brodie, a very original investigator of chemistry; Pierre Antoine Favre, an authority in thermo-chemistry; the geologist, Karl von Seebach, with whom it is fitting to name Dr. Charles T. Jackson, of Boston (though more memorable for his disputing with Morton priority in the use of ether, and with Morse the invention of the telegraph), and Prof. S. S. Haldeman, of Philadelphia (though of late years better known as a philologist); Prof. W. H. Miller, a specialist in crystallography; Prof. C. A. F. Peters, the astronomical director at Kiel, and Prof. J. C. Watson, prematurely cut off in his astronomical labors at Madison, Wisconsin; General A. J. Myer, the organizer of the Signal Service Bureau; Frank Buckland, the naturalist; our countrymen, Dr. Thomas M. Brewer, ornithologist, and Asa Fitch, entomologist; finally, Anton Schiefner, the Russian philologist, mark further ravages in the domain of scientific research. Akin to these was an American inventor in the front rank of hydraulic engineering, Henry R. Worthington; Carl Petersen was the Arctic explorer who settled the fate of Sir John Franklin's expedition; and John A. Sutter was the cause of the discovery of gold in California on January 19, 1848. Shall we mention here also Benjamin Brandreth, whose name is almost inseparable from the idea of pills? Jules Jacquemart, the incomparable etcher, was the foremost artist of those who died last year; but Thomas Landseer, the engraver, Edward M. Barry, architect of the Houses of Parliament, and S. R. Gifford, the painter, of this city, were all prominent in their respective lines. Literature is deprived of George Eliot, Paul de Musset, Gustave Flaubert, the Countess Hahn-Hahn, W. H. G. Kingston, and Prof. James De Mille, among the novelists; Jones Very, one of the truest and shyest of American poets, the Norwegian poet Landstad; Richard Frothingham, the historian of Boston and Bunker's Hill, and Samuel G. Arnold, the historian of Rhode Island; Alfred Woltmann, the biographer of Holbein; the Russian litterateur, Glinka. Joel Munsell, of Albany, and John Murphy, of Baltimore, held an honorable place among our publishers; and both authors and publishers had a common friend in James Lenox, founder of the library which bears his name. Journalism loses Pierce Egan, Adolphe Granier de Cassagnac, Frank Leslie (Henry Carter), George Ripley, E. D. Mansfield, Karl Heinzen, and, by a not improper classification, Bishop Gilbert Haven and the Rev. Samuel Osgood. With them, as with the novelists, might stand Lydia Maria Child, better ranked, no doubt, with the philanthropists, and hence with Lucretia Mott. Philanthropic in a high degree was the work of the Rev. Barnas Sears, and the title would be well bestowed on the economic writings of W. T. Thornton and Michel Chevalier. The English bench lost an ornament in Chief-Justice Cockburn, the American in Peleg Sprague; the same year witnessed the death of Dr. Kenealy.

—In 1860 the Legislature of California authorized a thorough survey of

the State. The plans were generous in their scope, embracing not only an examination of the geological structure, but also of all minerals, plants, and animals found within the State limits. The charge of this comprehensive survey was entrusted to Professor J. D. Whitney, who selected competent assistants and entered upon the work with great energy. To the average legislator all surveys must, of course, be somewhat disappointing which do not result in augmenting the value of land in his immediate vicinity. It is not strange, therefore, that a survey conducted upon a thoroughly scientific basis, and regarding the acquisition of accurate knowledge relative to all natural productions as the chief desideratum, should sooner or later decline in popularity. There is no need of asking whether some other influences, resulting from impartial investigation of the intrinsic value of certain mines, in the interest of economic geology, may not have contributed towards diminishing the desire to have the survey of California continued. It is enough to say that the funds placed at Professor Whitney's disposal were not, after the first years, at all adequate to the vigorous prosecution of the work. The materials for a study of the plants of the State had been largely brought together by the industry of Professor Brewer and other assistants attached to the survey by the close of 1864. The subsequent collecting was desultory in its character, but of much importance. The question of examining the plants and publishing the results of the study was a serious one for which the State did not provide. In default of favorable legislative action, a few far-sighted and public-spirited citizens of the State contributed funds for the undertaking. The means for the purpose were obtained chiefly through active solicitation by Judge Hastings, of San Francisco. The first volume of the Botany of California was published in 1876, and has been noticed in these columns. The second and concluding volume has now been issued. The whole work as it stands is the finest Flora yet published in this country. Its range includes not only the flowering plants and ferns, as did Dr. Torrey's Flora of New York, but it comprises also the mosses. The second volume is the work of Sereno Watson, who had already done so much towards increasing our knowledge of the plants of the Far West. The extraordinary painstaking and the critical exactness which characterized his Botany of the Fortieth Parallel, and his numerous contributions to the American Academy, are to be seen throughout the work now before us.

—The vastness of the undertaking will be better appreciated when attention is called to the fact that the surface covered by the Flora contains more than one hundred and fifty thousand square miles, and that the printed accounts of such plants as had been previously described were scattered through journals and reports dating from 1791. It is no slight task to collate the widely separated descriptions that are to be first gathered together from a century of scientific literature. Mr. Watson has received the aid of the following specialists: Dr. Engelmann, the oaks, pines, and mistletoe; Mr. Bebb, the willows; Mr. Boott, of Boston, the carices (sedges); Dr. Thurber, the grasses; and Prof. Eaton, the ferns. It may be remembered that a part of the first volume was contributed by Professors Gray and Brewer. The latter has given, at the close of the present volume, a short but very interesting sketch of the early and the recent botanical exploration of California. From the record it appears that a large number of willing hands throughout the State have assisted in bringing together the material which alone rendered such a treatise as this of Mr. Watson's possible. The publication of the 'Botany of California' will doubtless greatly stimulate the work of collecting, and add to the list many plants which have thus far escaped the amateur and professional botanists. No branch of natural history can be faithfully and actively prosecuted without influencing all cognate departments of thought, and for this reason, if for no other, Californians are to be congratulated upon the earnest assistance which Mr. Watson and his co-laborers have given, upon the generosity of the citizens who were unwilling to throw away the rich materials which the Legislature had well-nigh sacrificed, and upon the persistence and energy by which their Geologist is, at no slight expenditure of time and personal means, completing the task undertaken twenty years ago.

—The third concert of the Symphony Society produced an interesting novelty, the "Spring Fantasy" of Hans von Bronsart. Bronsart belongs to the most advanced romantic school, and his composition, which was written as long as twenty-one years ago, and was performed for the first time in Leipzig in 1859, met with little favor both from the critics and the public in that conservative city of classical traditions. It had not been heard in Germany since, until two years ago, when it was performed in Weimar and received the hearty approval of such critics as Bulow and Liszt. Its performance, last Saturday, was for the first time in this country. The "Spring Fantasy" is a symphonic poem in five movements, and programme music in the fullest meaning of the word. The different situations—"Desolation of Winter," "Coming of Spring," "Love's Dream," "Life's Tempest," and "Hymn of Spring"—are represented with admirable realistic effect. The opening number, a sombre adagio, chiefly for the wind instruments, denotes the mournful slumber of nature. The approach of spring in the second movement is ushered in by a joyful allegro, first by the string orchestra

in a high pitch, until the arrival of the welcome guest is marked by the full orchestra, in jubilant strains. The third movement is a charming love-song for violin obligato, which was excellently rendered by Mr. Arnold. This beautiful lyric part is followed by a passionate allegro molto, "Life's Tempest," which is artistically relieved by the solemn and joyful strains of the "Hymn of Spring." Bronsart introduces here one of the most beautiful old chorales of the Lutheran church, "How beautifully shines the morning star"; and played at the conclusion by the brass instruments, accompanied by the swelling arpeggios of the strings and harp, the effect of it is exceedingly impressive. The "Spring Fantasy" is not a very original production; the strong influence of the Liszt-Wagner school, both in instrumentation and treatment of the different subjects, is noticeable in every phrase, and the reminiscences of the "Hymn to Joy," from Beethoven's Ninth Symphony, are so marked in the last movement that it almost seems the author's intention to remind his hearers of that immortal work. Nevertheless we do not doubt that his symphony will become a permanent favorite in our concert programmes. The remaining orchestral numbers, Beethoven's Fourth Symphony and the Tannhäuser overture, were rendered by Dr. Damrosch with great vigor and precision. Mr. Wilhelmj played the Bruch Concerto in G and Bach's great Chaconne in his best style.

—Mr. Henschel's second recital of vocal music was a great artistic success. It is undoubtedly in this class of music that the artist's qualities show to the greatest advantage. He sang the series "An die entfernte Geliebte" by Beethoven, seven songs from "Die schöne Müllerin" by Schubert, and three songs by Brahms, with wonderful beauty of expression. Mr. Sherwood played Bach's Chromatic Fantasy and Fugue, and several minor numbers, very acceptably. Altogether these recitals by Mr. Henschel rank among the most refined enjoyments of the musical season. Another interesting performance of the week was the third concert of chamber-music by the Philharmonic Club. Raff's quartet for string instruments in D minor has, we believe, not been heard before in this country. Like most of the prolific writer's compositions, it is brilliant and pleasing, though neither very original nor very profound. The second and third movements are perhaps the best, and they were exceedingly well played. Schubert's beautiful "Trout" quintet, with Mr. S. B. Mills at the piano, was, in spite of Raff's novelty, the most attractive number of the evening.

—The three millions of the native tribes of South Africa, either within the British frontiers or near enough to be in communication with the colonial authorities, appeared two or three years ago not too formidable for the colonists to manage, and they undertook investigations for the purpose of annexing also a large part of the western coast. One Mr. Coates Palgrave was the prominent agent of the colonists in the transaction. He was sent in 1876 as agent of the colony to the tribes of the region, Damaras and Namaquas, and the descendants of the Hottentot chief, Jaager Afrikaaner. The annexation was made March 12, 1878, by an officer of a British vessel, acting under the orders of Sir Bartle Frere, at Walfish Bay, in the presence of a few natives specially invited and some Europeans, of whom there are usually resident five or six, the owners of four stores. The number at the time was increased to twenty-three. The bay and the adjacent territory were declared by the proclamation to be taken possession of, the limits to be fixed by the natives acting with the commissioner, Mr. Palgrave. The Damaras by subsequent negotiations have ceded 460 miles of sea-coast, and themselves, with strange generosity, withdrawn to the interior; they are said to have given up thirteen-twentieths of their land. The coast-line ceded extends from the Orange River to a point beyond the Nourse or Cunene River, emptying into the Atlantic between Capes Negro and Frio, and includes country already claimed by the Portuguese. The treaty limits are doubtless of little account in view of Sir Bartle Frere's policy to annex all west of the Transvaal—ten degrees of latitude and twelve degrees of longitude, or 400,000 square miles, a territory nearly twice the size of Afghanistan or of Asia Minor. In the district ceded there is no industry apart from a little trade with the few vessels that frequent the coast, although all the natives appear to be well supplied with firearms. Ostrich feathers and ivory are to be had, and Kaoko, in northwest Damaraland, is said to be able to supply 4,000 or 5,000 head of cattle yearly to the colonial markets. There are rumors also of metalliferous deposits north of the Orange River. The real reason of the annexation, however, is probably to be found in the aspiration of Frere's policy, which would even go beyond that above quoted, and put all Africa under British protection from "the Cape of Storms to Guardafui." There was really some reason for British interference, as the Damaras had applied to the colony for aid in settling their feuds with the Namaquas, and assistance was given in 1870; but their last fear, of invasion by the Boers, is said to have been wholly groundless. The negotiations for the cession appear, according to our authority (Mr. F. R. Statham in the *Fortnightly* for November), to have been conducted with some secrecy with respect to the people in England. Palgrave's first report is said to have reached England "through no official channel," and Lord Carnarvon's confidential

despatch of January, 1878, sanctioning the annexation by the Colonial Government, has never been published.

—The greatly disputed question as to the existence of a pre-Hamitic population in the valley of the Nile has been finally set at rest by the unequivocal evidence afforded by the recent archaeological and lithological researches of Dr. Mook. The announcement made some eleven years ago by Lenormant, Arcelin, Hamy, and other archaeologists of the discovery of what appeared to be the remains of a pre-historic Egyptian Stone Age may be considered to have originated the widespread controversy which has of late years disturbed the archaeological congresses of Germany and France, and enlisted among the participants some of the most eminent representatives of modern scientific thought. What is especially noteworthy in connection with this controversy is the fact that Germany, otherwise so liberal in her views towards scientific progress, has in the present instance shown an unscientific conservatism worthy of French anti-evolutionary radicalism; a circumstance the more to be regretted when it is remembered what an amount of authority is vested in the names of Lepsius, Ebers, Brugsch-Bey, and Virchow. The finds in question are mainly from the Quaternary sands and alluvium of the lower Nile valley—Helwan, the neighborhood of Cairo, Memphis, and Gizeh—but they also appear at intervals scattered throughout a great portion of the river districts of both Lower and Upper Egypt; those in the vicinity of Luxor being especially numerous. They consist mainly of jasper implements, reputed by their discoverers to represent spear and arrow-heads, saws, knives, pounders, and fire-flints, some of which, according to Dr. Mehlig (*Kosmos*, December, 1880), are barely distinguishable from the similar finds belonging to the northern kjökenmøddings and the pile-dwellings of Switzerland. Those of Helwan are associated with the bones of the dromedary, hyena, ass, zebra, and antelope, and are disseminated in a deposit which may be said to represent three different stages of deposition and cultural development. The prevalence of extensive workshops (*ateliers*) of stone implements in portions of the desert now entirely uninhabitable has led Mook, Fraas, Delamotte, and others to suspect in those regions, during man's abode, the existence of climatal and terrestrial conditions different from what are to be observed at the present day; a supposition in great part verified by the discovery of embedded leaves in deposits of the same age as, and associated with, stone implements.

—It appears, indeed, not improbable that even in comparatively recent geological times a not inconsiderable portion of what is now desert land may have been covered with a luxuriant vegetation. Similar deposits of siliceous implements have been found in the Sinaitic Peninsula, Palestine, Syria, and Arabia, those of the Lebanon associated with the remains of the *Ursus spelæus*, *Felis spelæa*, *Rhinoceros tichorhinus*, *Bos primigenius*, and other well-known members of the European cave-fauna. The chronological correlation of these finds with the similar finds of Europe is a problem of no slight scientific importance, since it will help to determine whether the Stone Age of Europe is in advance of or posterior to the Stone Age of Africa and Asia, and whether, while the greater portion of Europe was covered by the great ice-cap of the glacial period, the sparks of an incipient culture may not have already appeared in more southern latitudes. The point of contention in the present controversy pertains to the genuineness of the siliceous chips. It had been argued by Lepsius, Brugsch, and Virchow, both independently and during the anthropological congress of Kiel, Strassburg, and Berlin (the last held in August of the past year), that the fragments were not the product of art but of nature, fractures from rock *in situ* induced by contraction and expansion incident to atmospheric conditions. Their artificial origin has been with equal force, although with perhaps less warmth, maintained by the French archaeologists and ethnologists, and notably by the late M. Broca. A technical comparative examination of the chips in question and those produced through natural causes has placed beyond reasonable doubt the evidence of human agency in the shaping of the former.

—According to the first number of the *Zeitschrift für Orthographie* there are now in existence three societies in Germany, and one each in England, America, French Switzerland, and India, whose aim it is to simplify the spelling of the vernacular. Not one of these societies, except perhaps the Indian, is older than 1876. It is curiously characteristic of French conservatism in literary matters, and perhaps also of the French dread of becoming ridiculous, that no such society has sprung up in France itself. On the other hand, Germany has room and, unfortunately, occasion for a still wider discussion of orthographical matters than the existence of so many societies implies. Three of the several states of the empire, Württemberg, Bavaria, and Prussia, have imposed reformed spellings on their schools, and all these spellings are different. Austria and Switzerland have also each an official spelling-guide for their German school-children, while the usage of the vast majority of the speakers and writers of German everywhere constitutes a sixth authoritative system. Previous to all this well-meant interference on the part of paternal governments, each for itself, with the habits of its subjects, there were, to be sure, a few cases in which you could not tell at sight whether the vowel part

of a German word was meant to be pronounced long or short. In most cases, however, the quantity of the vowel was unmistakably marked, only recourse was not in every case had to the same expedient; one vowel, for instance, would be lengthened by being doubled, and another in another word by having an *h* inserted after it. These were almost the only defects of the usual German orthography.

—Unfortunately, the Germans were not satisfied to let well alone, or if they made any changes at all, to make them in concert; and now what is right in Berlin is wrong in Vienna and Munich; what the Prussian Minister of Public Instruction ordains, his Prussian colleagues in Government office refuse to conform to; the printers and the general public cling to the old ways, and professional orthographers invent and practise as many new kinds of spelling, some with new types and some with the old, as there are differences of opinion. It seemed as if a good beginning had been made when four hundred German publishers and newspaper editors gave their assent to certain rules proposed by Daniel Sanders, the lexicographer, but a Government edict appeared and reduced everything to chaos. It is heartily to be desired that our own zealous innovators should realize and take warning by the confusion which reigns in German, a language that promised such an easy triumph for spelling reform. One lesson seems to be, not to initiate a revolution of doubtful success, which is apt to be time wasted, and another not to attack school committees nor any other authorities, nor the public, which is indifferent, but the leading writers, publishers, and newspaper editors. Having won these over, their public will insensibly conform.

—The second edition of Léon Gautier's 'Les Épopées Françaises,' which is to all intents and purposes a new work, has reached the third volume, which by some accident has appeared before the second. The first, published three years ago, contained, as a general introduction to the whole work, a history of the *chansons de geste*, their origin, elements, and history, with elaborate treatises on their versification and the various modifications they have undergone in the course of time. This external history of the *chansons de geste* is to be completed in the second volume. The third, a handsome book of eight hundred pages, is devoted to the Cycle of Charlemagne, and affords a good specimen of the manner in which the remainder of the work is to be carried out. The *chansons de geste* referring to Charlemagne, arranged in chronological order according to the events they describe, are analyzed with frequent translations of the most striking passages. These analyses are interrupted at appropriate intervals by "halts," during which the author gives a rapid résumé of the ground already traversed, and introduces excursions on such topics as "the portrait of Charlemagne according to all the *chansons de geste*," and "Charlemagne's companions." This, the literary part of the work, interesting though it be, is the least valuable. Each *chanson de geste* is accompanied by a bibliographical and historical notice printed as a foot-note, some of which—as that to the 'Chanson de Roland,' which covers nearly one hundred pages—assume the proportions of independent volumes. These notes give where possible the date of the composition, the author, MSS. and their classification, editions, translations, works relating to the *chanson de geste* in question, diffusion in various countries, literary criticism, historical elements, and variation and modification of the legend (where the poem rests on a legendary basis). It is impossible to speak too highly of this portion. The complete and impartial résumés of hosts of works relating to the subject will save the student an immense expenditure of time and take the place of a large collection of books, useless after a few necessary references. Works on the plan of the present one are greatly to be desired in other branches of mediæval literature. The Arthurian Cycle, drama, *fabliaux*, legend, etc., must now be studied fragmentarily and at great expense of time and outlay for materials.

—The history of the mediæval drama has received an important contribution in Gustav Milchsack's 'Die Oster- und Passionsspiele' (Wolfenbüttel, 1880), the first fasciculus of which is devoted to the Latin Easter plays. The writer has for the first time compared all the Easter plays extant, and has thus been able to arrive at the primitive form and to decide some important questions in regard to the origin of the liturgical drama. Considerable space is also devoted to showing how Mone's views on this subject have been misunderstood—so completely, in fact, that the very arguments he uses against a certain view have been cited to prove him in favor of it. Milchsack shows that the Latin Easter plays in Germany, France, and Holland originally consisted of one and the same scene, resting on Mark xvi. 1-7, which must have been composed in one definite place and by one author. This overthrows the opinion previously held by Mone, that they arose from the responses in the church service, and Schönbach's, that they owe their origin to the second half of the sequence *Victime paschali*. The time of performance was during matins or mass of the first day of the Easter festival. The author has collected a large amount of material from rare sources and has earned the gratitude of all students of the liturgical drama. He has, however, overlooked D'Ancona's 'Origini del Teatro in Italia' (Florence, 1877), where, vol. i. p.

30, he would have found cited the *Ordinarium Ecclesie Parmensis*, which proves the existence of Latin Easter plays in Italy.

HODGKIN'S INVADERS OF ITALY.*

MR. HODGKIN has made a real and valuable contribution to historical literature: a consecutive account, in the light of modern scholarship, of a period for which until now Gibbon has been almost the only authority in English. The range and importance of the field covered are well illustrated by the names of Alaric, Attila, Genseric ("Gaiseric" he calls him), and Odoacer, or "Odovaker," of all of whom these volumes treat. There are no other barbarian names in this period of equal importance; and none of the invasions of this period are passed over without notice except the slight beginnings of the Anglo-Saxon. All the others touched Italy and its fate. The period described in these two volumes is that of the hundred years preceding the event which we used to know as the Fall of the Western Empire; they begin with the crossing of the Danube by the Visigoths in 376, and end with the dethronement of Romulus Augustulus in 476. The narrative is so continuous and so graphic, the relation of events is so well brought out, and the rottenness of the Empire made so clear, that at the end one hardly looks for a separate chapter upon the causes of the Fall. The Empire fell because it could not stand, the reader says to himself; it is a wonder it did not fall before, and if the causes of anything need to be analyzed, we should wish rather to know why the Eastern Empire did not fall than why the Western Empire did fall. The persistence of the Byzantine Empire for another thousand years is one of the marvels of history; that a government such as that which we follow in these pages at Rome and Ravenna must break down is a matter of course.

We could not, perhaps, say anything more hearty in commendation of this history than this. We may, therefore, frankly confess that while Mr. Hodgkin's narrative is all that could be desired, as setting forth concretely the causes of the tragedy, the final chapter, in which these causes are summed up and analyzed, is not nearly so satisfactory. It does not, to be sure, profess to be a complete analysis of these causes, and there is little to criticise in what it contains. The detail is nearly all good; the defect is, that the point of view is chiefly one of detail, and that we miss a broad and comprehensive conception of what we mean by "Fall of the Empire." There are, in fact, two totally independent enquiries, which the author appears to treat as if they necessarily went together. If we ask why the Empire as an organized government came to an end, the answer is simple—it did not come to an end at all. It seemed at the point of dissolution in the third century; but at that time there was no possible substitute for it, and it was kept in existence by its sheer indispensableness. Revived and reorganized by Diocletian and Constantine, it lived an uninterrupted existence until overthrown by Mahomet II. The "Fall" described in these volumes was nothing but the suspension of one of the administrative divisions of the Empire; in reality a hardly more vital change than if one of the prefectures had been suspended—that is, annexed to one of the other prefectures. Again, the two epochs of the fall of the Republic and the fall of the Empire are often confounded. The fall of the Republic was a change in the form of government, of a very fundamental nature, it is true; the fall of the Empire was the end of government itself. The real question before us is neither why the Republic fell, for this took place long before; nor why the government of the Empire came to an end, for that took place long after. It was, why the Empire itself, or, rather, the western half of it, fell to pieces? This was a gradual process, excellently described in these volumes; one in which the catastrophe in which they end was only an incident, and not a very important one at that. It is a very curious fact, well brought out here, that the "end of the Western Empire" was not caused by an invasion at all, but by a mutiny such as there had been numbers of before quite as violent and threatening. At this epoch the western half of the Empire was already pretty well broken to pieces. Africa was in the hands of the Vandals, Spain in those of the Suevi and Visigoths, Gaul was divided between several powers; but the undivided Empire, with its two capitals, still held sway over Italy and a part, at least, of Gaul. After this epoch the disintegration continued, until all that was left to the Empire in the West (besides the shadow of a great name) was that uncertain and disjointed group of states known as the Exarchate of Ravenna. This further process, so far at least as concerns Italy, Mr. Hodgkin intends to relate in a later volume, which will be a natural and necessary sequel to the present work.

The fall of the Empire, then, in the sense in which we can apply this term to the events narrated in these volumes, consisted in the process by which the several provinces of the Empire came piecemeal under the rule of the barbarians. There was generally an implied acknowledgment on their part—distinctly recognized in the case, for example, of the Visigoths—that they were still subjects of Augustus, and their kingdoms still part of his Empire;

* Italy and her Invaders, 376-476. By Thomas Hodgkin, B.A., Fellow of University College, London. Vol. i., Book i., The Visigothic Invasion; Vol. ii., Book ii., The Hunnish Invasion; Book iii., The Vandal Invasion and the Hæroian Mutiny. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

but their authority was always established and maintained by arms, and not always even by the sufferance of their sovereign. When we ask for the cause of this series of events, the answer is prompt and simple: the Visigoths, the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Burgundians took these provinces because they wanted them, and were stronger than those from whom they took them. The problem before us is, therefore, why the Empire was weaker than the barbarians. Once it had been otherwise. Five hundred years before, Rome had not only successfully resisted the attacks of the German tribes, but had even carried her arms victoriously across the Rhine. And if any Germans had settled within the limits of the Empire, as the Ubii at Cologne, it was distinctly as subjects of the Empire, as *laeti*. There was no weakness in this; it was a privilege granted to the barbarians. But now it was Germany that crossed the Rhine, and Rome fell. The question of strength is purely relative. The Eastern Empire was, we suppose, no stronger intrinsically than the Western; but—until the Saracen conquests of the seventh century—the assaults in that quarter were far less vigorous. Consequently, the Eastern Empire stood unimpaired, while every internal cause of dissolution was at work just as actively as in the West. It is plain enough why the most vigorous assaults, those of the Germans, were made upon the west rather than the east; why, therefore, it was the Western Empire that fell rather than the Eastern. It is plain enough, too, why the barbarians were strong; why their strength had grown and become concentrated in the centuries since the campaigns of Drusus and Germanicus; although Mr. Hodgkin would have made this even plainer if he had told us more of their institutions and social condition, a topic upon which abundance of new light has been thrown since Gibbon wrote. It was the Empire as a whole, not the west in particular, that had lost strength.

All the causes enumerated by Mr. Hodgkin were efficient causes of this weakness, and, therefore, of the fall of the Empire. But they varied widely in their working. Slavery, for instance, hardly comes in at all as an immediate cause of the fall of the Empire. It had done its work long before, and the characteristic institution of this epoch was serfdom, *colonatus*, rather than slavery; and serfdom was at this stage of society rather a cohesive agency than a source of disintegration. So with the clamor for *panem et circenses*; this was a potent cause of the fall of the Republic, but it does not appear to have had any great influence in causing the provinces to drop off into the hands of the barbarian kings. At this point we would call attention to one consideration which is often overlooked. The Empire was an organized military despotism, and in a government of this class weakness consists primarily and essentially in want of men and want of money. The latter of these Mr. Hodgkin has treated very well; his statement of the financial mismanagement and the decay of the municipal towns is admirable, although his account of the latter is defective in some particulars. The question of depopulation, on the other hand, he greatly undervalues, speaking of Mr. Seeley's well-known essay in terms of high commendation, but adding that this depopulation is "a symptom rather than a cause of the malady" (p. 634), and referring to slavery, the *latifundia*, and the tax system as the real causes. Of course, to a great extent this is true. Slavery and the plantation system ruined the Republic by destroying that middle class upon which the existence of the Republic depended. But that middle class once destroyed and the Republic once overthrown, the slave system, as such, was not inconsistent with the prosperity of a military despotism; it was only in so far as it checked the growth of population that it undermined the military strength of the Empire, and that only indirectly. The armies of the Empire were as invincible when they were principally composed of barbarian *federati* and commanded by barbarians, like Stilicho and Ricimer, as when they consisted of Italian legions and auxiliaries; so long, that is, as there was a prosperous, peaceful class to pay the expenses. It was the disappearance of the population and the decay of material prosperity that made this condition of things no longer possible. Now, in this period slavery probably had no very powerful influence in diminishing the population. Its influence was rather indirect, as the principal cause of that demoralization of society which prevented it from reviving after the great calamities of the second and third centuries. These pestilences, wars, and famines were terribly destructive, but no more so than at other periods of history. The depletion caused by them would, in a healthy state of society, have been made up within a generation by the recuperative force of nature. As it was, society could not rally. Population and wealth were steadily diminishing; and this is the reason why the barbarians were able at their leisure to pick off one province after another of the Empire.

Besides the economical causes already mentioned, Mr. Hodgkin speaks at some length of the foundation of Constantinople and the growth of Christianity as causes of the fall of the Empire. Both these sections are striking and full of good sense. The foundation of Constantinople undoubtedly hastened the disruption of the Western Empire, by transferring the centre of gravity of the Empire so far to the east. The growth of Christianity affected equally both halves of the Empire; there was, our author shows, an utter incongruity between the new religion and the old pagan state. Well as he puts the case, however, we cannot but think that a better form of Christianity than that which prevailed at this epoch would have been a source of life ra-

ther than of death to the Empire. In truth, there is no period of Christian history when Christianity—or rather the Christian Church—fails more utterly to win our sympathy. The leading churchmen themselves—Ambrose, Augustine, Innocent, Leo—are truly great men; almost the only men of the age who command our unqualified respect. But how little power the Church, even under these great leaders, had over the lives of its members, we are constantly reminded in this work. There is something vital wanting when a religious organization fails so completely to influence society, and hardly succeeds in making good men of any but the ecclesiastics themselves. On one occasion our author remarks that when a person of probity and fidelity was looked for, it seemed natural to take a pagan. His remarks on the baneful influence of persecution are particularly good (vol. ii. p. 564).

The chief merit of this book, next to the clear, concrete presentation of the necessity of the fall of the Empire, is, probably, the account of the relations of the barbarian nations to one another, and their condition and movements in the intervals between the invasions. One generally fancies Alaric as dropping almost from the clouds into the field of events; the empires of Attila and Genseric lack reality. Gibbon's stately periods fail somehow to convey the impression of life and action; all is distant, exalted, statuesque. Moreover, he does not distinctly fill up the gaps between the stirring events. In the book before us we do not miss continuousness in the narration, even where events are most scanty. A good illustration of this is the enigmatic rule of Syagrius in northern Gaul (p. 444). Considering this excellence, we are all the more surprised at the neglect of the internal affairs of the barbarians. Perhaps it seemed too extensive a subject to introduce in a treatise which was already large enough; but space is found for a chapter upon the government of the Empire—a far more familiar and, for this reason, less important topic. The illustrations are admirable. Every emperor, and many empresses and others, are illustrated by coins, giving their portraits—rude and unsatisfactory, indeed, but suggestive and helpful so far as they go. There are colored prints of mosaics and bas-reliefs at Ravenna—a boon to Mr. Freeman's scholars. The maps are numerous and excellent. It is a mistake, however, as being likely to mislead, to give the divisions of the Empire only as established by Diocletian (vol. i. p. 25). There is no map that makes clear the fact that the permanent division, made between the sons of Theodosius, placed the boundary between the great divisions of east and west in such a way as to divide Illyricum between the two empires. If the reader undertakes to compare the map just referred to with the table of the Empire on page 226 he will be puzzled at the discrepancy. There is, of course, a good index.

THE MISSISSIPPI JETTIES.*

THIS book is the history of what is perhaps the greatest single engineering work yet achieved in America, whether we regard it with reference to the benefit which will result from it or with reference to the difficulties encountered in its execution. It is a history, moreover, written by a man perhaps better qualified than any one else could possibly be to describe these difficulties and the success with which they were overcome, for Mr. Corthell was associated with the undertaking from its very beginning, and actually resided at Port Eads for nearly the whole of the four years while the jetties were in progress, and, besides being an engineer of high standing, is an educated gentleman of large intelligence.

The importance of improving the mouths of the Mississippi River had been recognized for an indefinite period. With a depth of water of from fifty to one hundred feet for some hundreds of miles above the head of the passes, the greatest natural depth across the bars was scarcely sixteen feet, and an uncertain channel of eighteen feet had only been maintained by constant dredging. To enable deep-draught ships to enter the river the army engineers proposed the construction of a ship-canal to connect the river at a point near Fort St. Philip with the waters of the Gulf, which lie only a few miles away on the outside of the low bank which the river has built for itself in its advance of over two hundred miles from the old shoreline of the continent. The bolder and simpler plan of making the river itself open a channel through the bar was one which the army engineers seemed afraid of. In February, 1874, Mr. James B. Eads, of St. Louis, came forward with a proposition to open a channel thirty feet deep across the bar at Southwest Pass at his own risk, no payments to be made until the results promised were actually obtained. His proposition was opposed by nearly all the eminent engineers of the Army. A commission was appointed to report on this subject, and this commission, after examining the works at the mouths of the principal European rivers, made a report in favor of Mr. Eads's plan. In March, 1875, an act was finally passed entrusting Mr. Eads with the task, but requiring him to accomplish at the South Pass the same results which he had proposed to obtain at the Southwest Pass. The position in which he was placed will be understood when it is remembered that

* "A History of the Jetties at the Mouth of the Mississippi River. By E. L. Corthell, C.E., Chief Assistant and Resident Engineer during their construction." New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1880.

the Mississippi River discharges through three passes—the Southwest Pass carrying about one-half the entire water of the river, the Pass à l'Oudre somewhat more than one-third, and the South Pass, which is between the two, less than a sixth of the whole.

From the broad river at the head of the passes the South Pass extends about ten miles out into the Gulf. It is some seven hundred feet wide, and its banks are scarcely a foot above the surface of the water. Its course is nearly straight, and the depth of water ample for all purposes of navigation. At the head of the pass was a shoal with scarcely eighteen feet of water on it, but the great obstacle to its use was a bar lying about a mile seaward from the ends of the low banks with only eight feet of water over it. The theory of the jetties was simply that the amount of water which had maintained a deep channel between the natural banks would maintain the same depth across the bar, if the width could be confined by artificial banks to the same narrow limits which exist above. While the current was free to spread out in either direction, with no natural confinement, a smaller depth furnished the area necessary for the discharge, and the sediment carried by the muddy water of the Mississippi made the bar. The jetties are simply artificial extensions of the natural banks of the pass, across the bar, to the deep water of the Gulf. They are built of willows fastened together into large mattresses, the mattresses being compacted with rubble-stone, and finally, at the sea ends, where they are most exposed, weighted down with large concrete blocks built in position. The anticipated results were obtained, though not without many unforeseen difficulties. Where five years ago there were but eight feet of water there is now a navigable channel thirty feet deep across the South Pass bar, and any ship which can enter the port of New York can go up the Mississippi river to New Orleans.

The time consumed in accomplishing this result was about four years, from June 12, 1875, when the first fleet of barges left New Orleans for the South Pass, to July 10, 1879, when the Government officer in charge of the work reported that the depth required by law had been obtained. The mere construction of the jetties was perhaps the least difficult part of the achievement. From the start Mr. Eads encountered the severest opposition from the engineering officers who had charge of the dredging operations at Southwest Pass, and who had advocated the Fort St. Philip ship-canal. This opposition, while based on honest professional convictions, was exceedingly troublesome to Mr. Eads. It forced upon him financial embarrassments which might otherwise have been deferred, at least till a large part of the work had been accomplished. Being dependent on capitalists for the means required, it was with the greatest difficulty that funds could be raised at exorbitant rates for an enterprise which the leading Army engineers predicted could only result in failure. Besides the operations at the mouth of the pass, it was found necessary to open a channel through the shoal at the head of the pass, a problem much less expensive than the construction of the jetties themselves, but more perplexing. After various experiments with dams, a deep channel was finally obtained by prolonging the banks of the pass upward across the shoal by dams, and preventing any further increase in the discharge of the two great passes by laying sills of willow mattress-work across both of them. Had Mr. Eads been permitted to improve the Southwest Pass, as he desired, no works at the head of the pass would have been needed, the shoal existing only at the head of the South Pass. Finally, when the works were nearly completed, it was found that the discharge of the little South Pass had not the volume required for the safe maintenance of a channel of the dimensions specified in the act, which was originally drawn to cover the Southwest Pass, and it was found necessary to procure the passage of another act of Congress which, without decreasing the depth required, was satisfied with a narrower width of channel.

Mr. Corthell's history of the jetties is not designed merely for professional readers; it is a book which any one can understand. Perhaps fault may be found with him for having attempted to make it too popular, so that, while dwelling at considerable length on the obstructions encountered and the opposition which Mr. Eads finally overcame, he has given less space than might have been wished for to the details of construction and the interesting hydraulic problems which must have arisen continually as the work progressed. The book is illustrated by thirty-four plates, some of which are very instructive, and has a lengthy appendix of valuable matter.

The Garden of India; or, Chapters on Oudh History and Affairs. By H. C. Irwin, B.A. Oxon., Bengal Civil Service. (London: Allen & Co. 1880.)—The history of the Province of Oudh under British rule has a special interest, for the reason that here, beyond any other part of India, it is possible to estimate the degree of success which has attended the labors of Anglo-Indian administrators. Oudh has been a British province for little more than twenty years; it was annexed during the viceroyalty of Lord Dalhousie, on the pretext that the (so-called) rule of its own sovereigns was no better than a grievous anarchy; it is admitted, by universal consent, to be a

land of extraordinary fertility—the very “Garden of India,” as Mr. Irwin justly calls it. Looking, therefore, on this picture and on that, what have the population gained by the exchange of masters? Are the great mass of them better clothed, better fed? Is life less of a disheartening struggle than it was in the old anarchic days when the king and the barons of Oudh contended together? Mr. Irwin is a Bengal civilian, whose duties have lain in Oudh since within a few years of its annexation, and, if we are to credit his statements, the above questions would have to be answered in the negative. With the richest of soils under their feet, with a government styling itself humane and civilized above them, the great mass of the people of Oudh (so Mr. Irwin tells us) are steeped in hunger and poverty; scantily fed, insufficiently clad, their state now is worse than it was during the period of anarchy.

The causes which have brought about this disappointing result are too numerous for specification in the brief space at our disposal. A few of the more important are all that we can enumerate. First, then, the introduction of British rule into a province which has previously been ruled by a native sovereign means the swift and utter destruction of a variety of lucrative trades. Such a native court as that which existed in the city of Lucknow not merely gave occupation and means of subsistence to thousands of retainers, but handicrafts of all kinds flourished in the capital to minister to its luxury and extravagance. Rich carpets, rich dresses, rich curtains, gold and silver drinking vessels, lavish entertainments, gorgeous state ceremonials—all these and much else disappeared on the advent of British rule, to the complete ruin of those who had found a livelihood in supplying the materials for them. The army of the sovereign of Oudh was of course broken up and disbanded; with the introduction of a strong rule, the chiefs and great landholders of Oudh were obliged to dismiss the retinue of armed men with which they had been wont to resist the mandates of the Lucknow Government, and thus the narrow plot of ground which had sufficed, perhaps, for a single man was compelled to find subsistence for two, three, or four; for the great majority of the armed men thus deprived of military service were, of necessity, flung back upon the land to endeavor to wring a subsistence from it. Other peaceful industries perished in like manner. “The three principal industries,” writes Mr. Irwin, “under native rule were cotton-weaving, salt-making, and spirit-distilling. Of these the first has been crippled by Manchester competition; the second has been annihilated, so far as legislation can annihilate it, and the occupation of a numerous caste destroyed; while the third has been transformed into a department of administration, by the conversion of the private distiller into a paid employee of Government.” Last, but not least, since the advent of British rule there has been a steady and exhausting outflow of wealth from Oudh without any corresponding return. So long as native rule remained, how large soever might be the exactions laid upon the people, a large part of the money which had been wrung from them flowed, by other channels, back into their possession: it was not lost to the province. If the purchasing capacity of one man was diminished, that of another was increased to a proportionate extent. But British rule is a system of machinery which sucks up the wealth of the land to bestow it elsewhere. Rather more than a million and a half pounds is raised annually by taxation from the people of Oudh, and out of this at least £900,000 goes to defray the expenses of the administration in other parts of India.

In Oudh, as elsewhere in India, the English have put down all opposition to their will; they maintain order, inasmuch as every mandate that issues from the supreme Government is promptly and quietly obeyed; but there, as elsewhere, they have failed entirely to assure to the great body of the people a happy, prosperous, and progressive existence. And, curiously enough, the secret of this failure is to be found in the very completeness of that order on which the British in India so greatly pride themselves. If British power were less irresistible, it would be at greater pains to study and understand the condition of the people whose destinies it controls. As it is, Englishmen in India mistake the apathy of hopelessness for the repose of contentment. The people do not care to complain, because they are satisfied that complaints would be useless.

A free people, with a rapidity proportioned to the degree of freedom it possesses, is no sooner conscious of friction in its internal relations than, almost spontaneously, it enters upon a process of self-adjustment to the altered conditions of things. Under a despotism such as prevails in India such a spontaneous process is impossible. The people themselves, imprisoned in the cast-iron framework of an alien administrative system, lack all power of initiation, while there is no adequate medium of communication between them and the ruling bureaucracy. So the friction is allowed to go on until it has established a sore, and the sore is allowed to spread until it threatens the very existence of the community in which it has established itself. This is what has occurred in Oudh. An entire province has been reduced to beggary and destitution under the combined operation of blind rulers and blundering laws, the agents in this sad work looking complacently on, and attributing the havoc they have wrought not to their own shortcomings but to the character of the people—a constitutional infatuation with which it was idle to

cope. The following is a part of Mr. Irwin's description of the cultivating classes in Oudh:

"Taking the province as a whole, it is scarcely too much to say that a large proportion of cultivators have neither food sufficient to keep them in health, nor clothes sufficient to protect them from the weather; that their cattle are miserably thin and weak from under-feeding; that they are hardly ever out of debt for twelve months together, . . . and that, except in especially favorable seasons, they are dependent on the money-lender for their food for from two to six months in the year. . . . Well-fed-looking men are certainly the exception among them rather than the rule, and it is notorious that the able-bodied adult convict nearly always increases in weight after a few months on a jail diet of 24 oz. The condition of the Oudh cultivator might seem to be life reduced to its lowest terms. But there are hundreds of thousands all over the province compared with whom he, as Lear has it, is 'sophisticated'; the landless village laborer is 'the thing itself.' Everywhere, in every hamlet, there is a residuum of half-clad starvelings who have no cattle and no means of livelihood, save, perhaps, a tiny patch of spade-tilled land, and their labor, remunerated at the rate of 4 lbs. of coarse grain, or of three halfpence, or, at most, twopence farthing per diem. And even this wretched employment is not procurable all the year round. How, underfed and almost unclothed as they are, they contrive to live through the cold nights of winter, which they often spend in field-watching to keep off thieves, human and other, is a standing marvel."

The Three Years' Service of the Thirty-third Mass. Infantry Regiment, 1862-65. By Adin B. Underwood, A.M., formerly Colonel of the Regiment, Brig.-Gen. and Brevet Maj.-Gen. U.S.V. (Boston: A. Williams & Co. 1880.)—The author of this book has the advantage of being able to tell the story not only of some of the most important campaigns and battles of the Army of the Potomac, but of the battle of Chattanooga and of Sherman's whole campaign from Chattanooga to Atlanta, from Atlanta to Savannah, and from Savannah to Johnston's surrender. The experience of his regiment was almost or quite unique for a New-England regiment. The Thirty-third Massachusetts was organized in the summer of 1862, and left Massachusetts on the 14th of August. It was assigned to duty in Sigel's Eleventh Corps, went West with it at the end of September, 1863, and served afterwards, first as still a part of the Eleventh Corps, and then as part of the Twentieth Corps, formed by joining the Eleventh and Twelfth Corps. Its service ended with the great review in Washington, on the 24th of May, 1865.

It is doing no more than justice to General Underwood to say that his book is interesting, and that it has the value which belongs to all faithful records of military service, and which is increased when, as in this case, the record is very full. The interest of the volume, however, is due rather to the subject than to the author. It is not the work of a practised hand, and, in the attempt to be vivacious, not seldom flippancy is the result. There is something distasteful, too, in General Underwood's exultation over the havoc wrought by Sherman, coming as it does in cool print nearly sixteen years after Sherman's fires burned themselves out. This mingled flippancy and savagery finds its most disagreeable expression in the statement that a shot "exploded the plump person of Lieutenant-General Leonidas Polk, . . . and the Right Rev. Bishop of Louisiana, as he was ecclesiastically, was thus instantly mustered out of the church militant." But the style of regimental histories, and the humanity or inhumanity of their authors, are of secondary importance, and it must be admitted that this book in many respects deserves a good place in American military libraries. As for the writer's literary polemics, we do not rate them so high. He has taken much pains to collect material in relation to the conduct of the Eleventh Corps at Chancellorsville, and he labors earnestly to retrieve its reputation; but he has not used his material skilfully, in our judgment, for his argument not only does not carry conviction with it, but leaves a confused impression. It is to be regretted that General Underwood adds nothing to our knowledge of the causes of Sherman's dissatisfaction with Hooker. Hooker is a species of Avator to vast numbers of Eastern soldiers, and General Underwood clearly appears to be one of the true believers, and yet he tells us nothing new of the why and the wherefore of Hooker's failing to receive promotion after McPherson's death. To be sure, a severe wound at that time kept General Underwood away from the army; but, from his rank, one would think he must have been familiar with the talk of upper army circles on this interesting question of whether Hooker should rise, and if not, why not.

Bilder aus dem englischen Leben. Studien und Skizzen, von Leopold Katscher. (Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich. 1880.)—Since Heine reviled England so wittily in his delightful 'Englische Fragmente' the British Isles, with their free institutions and their model policemen, have exerted a powerful fascination over the imagination of Teutonic travellers. Heine, as is well known, was not scrupulous in his treatment of facts, but adapted them with much poetic license to his preconceived theories, and in this respect many of his successors (although lacking the wit which made his extravagances pardonable) have followed closely in his footsteps. German Conservatives who approve of Bismarck and the middle ages are apt to look at Great

Britain through very dark-colored spectacles, while Liberals and Radicals are inclined to view it *en couleur de rose*. To the latter order belongs Herr Leopold Katscher. Judging by his semi-biographical letters, he is a young German who spent a number of terms at Oxford, and in due time was rewarded with the baccalaureate degree. He has accordingly had better opportunities for studying English life and manners than those of his countrymen who make a flying trip to London and Brighton during the summer vacation, merely for the purpose of gathering material for a crude and ill-digested book; and if, in spite of the abundance and accuracy of his observations, his 'Sketches and Studies' fail of being entertaining, it is not because his knowledge is incomplete but because of the general deficiency of his intellectual equipment. The various undeniably interesting data concerning the development of the telegraph and postal service in the United Kingdom, the organization of the police and the municipal administration of London, are all so easily accessible that there can hardly be much merit in having collected them. When, however, the author lapses into the autobiographical mood, as in the chronicle of his university career and in his sketches of London club life, he grows less formal and more animated, and the task of perusing his pages becomes proportionately less laborious. The description of the college regatta, which is, of course, adapted to the inland imagination of the author's German correspondent, has to English readers almost a ludicrous air, and it is difficult to suppress a smile at the conscientious thoroughness with which every detail of the race is accounted for, and the slang of the occasion explained.

Herr Katscher was apparently much impressed with the luxurious elegance of student life at the great English universities. He could hardly fail to contrast the rich Gothic masonry of Christ Church or Magdalene College with the hard and barren outlines of Leipzig or Berlin University; nor could he fail to make his reflections concerning the corresponding differences between the well-bred and well-fed leisure of the gowned Oxford collegian and the industry, enthusiasm, and scholarly zeal of his hungry and ill-clad German brother. We say, Herr Katscher, who apparently knows what a German university is, could hardly fail to make these and many similar reflections; but in case he had a single weighty and unhackneyed thought in regard to the differences between the institutions of learning in his native land and those of England, he has carefully refrained from recording it. He wastes much space on the explanation of college terms, on the obsequiousness of his "scout," the magnificent breakfasts and luncheons, the wines and costly viands requisite for a gentlemanly existence, etc., etc. On the whole, the view we get of Oxford is entirely that of the undergraduate; and it is only charitable to believe that Herr Katscher cannot long have worn his baccalaureate honors.

Geschichte der Literatur des skandinavischen Nordens, von den ältesten Zeiten bis auf die Gegenwart, dargestellt von Frederik Winkel Horn. (Leipzig: Bernhard Schlicke; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1880.)—If ever the much-abused phrase, that a book fills a great gap in literature, can be used with justice, it certainly is applicable to this work, which supplies an unexpressed but nevertheless long-felt need. Almost the only thing accessible heretofore was 'The Literature and Romance of Northern Europe,' by William and Mary Howitt, in two volumes (London, 1852); and this work, though very attractive reading, is in many respects imperfect, and executed in a slipshod manner. The writing of a connected and exhaustive history of Scandinavian literature has never before been attempted in any tongue. The author, Dr. F. W. Horn, is a Dane—a fact which goes far to guarantee his correctness in details, though it doubtless makes him a less impartial critic than a foreigner would be. Before undertaking the present work his reputation had been well established in Scandinavia by a translation of the Elder Edda and of some of the Old-Norse sagas; by a literary study of Peder Syv, published in 1878; by a translation of Johannes Scherr's 'General History of Literature,' in two volumes; and by a history of Danish literature. In his translation of Scherr's work the part relating to Scandinavian literature was considerably enlarged and improved, and this led to a suggestion from Fr. Zarncke, Th. Möbius, and Konrad Maurer—the three most eminent Scandinavian scholars in Germany—that he should make this portion of his translation accessible to German readers. The suggestion was heeded, and the result is the work of over 400 pages now published. It is divided into three parts, the first giving in two chapters an account of old and modern Icelandic literature; the second presenting Danish literature, in seven chapters; and the third Swedish, including Finland's contribution to letters, in six chapters. There is also an introduction, a very valuable bibliographical appendix, and an excellent index. The bibliographical part furnishes a pretty complete list of the publications of Scandinavian authors, and shows, moreover, how extensively old Scandinavian texts have of late been republished, particularly in Denmark. Apparently Scandinavia is competing successfully with England and Germany in this field.

We have less patience with his shortcomings when we consider that he

was in no sense in want of excellent materials. There are numerous good works describing separately the literatures of Iceland, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, and his task really amounted to nothing more than a judicious compilation and condensation of them into a systematic whole. The book will be found very tedious reading. This could easily have been avoided, partly by giving more biographical information, partly by introducing occasional specimens from the authors whose works are discussed. But there are more serious faults. On page 63 Dr. Horn says that but few Icelandic translations of legends have been published, quite neglecting Unger's edition of 'Heilagra Manna Saga' (1877) and Thorwald Bjarnarson's edition of 'Leifarforma Kristinna Fræða Islenskra' (1878). On page 66 he states that of Norway's four provincial codes only the *Gulathingssög* and the *Borgarthingssög* are preserved, while the fact is, as he could have found by referring to Konrad Maurer, that besides the *Gulathingssög* the *Frostathingssög* is extant almost complete, while of the *Borgarthingssög* and the *Eidsivatingssög* we have scarcely anything left but the parts which pertain to ecclesiastical jurisprudence. In regard to the origin of Old-Norse literature Dr. Horn's statements are ambiguous and contradictory. In one place he says that this whole literature existed in an unwritten form ready to be put in writing, and, in another place, that the saga-writing gradually developed and improved as the Icelanders progressed in knowledge and experience. Of course these views are held by two different Old-Norse schools, but it will hardly do for one man to embrace both doctrines. At one time he calls the Old-Norse literature the common heritage of all Scandinavia, at another he attributes it exclusively to Iceland. His account of *Are Frode* and his works is sadly muddled, and of the 'Morkinskinna' he says that it was undoubtedly used by Snorre Sturleson in his compilation of the 'Heimskringla,' while it is commonly agreed that the 'Morkinskinna' MS. was produced long after the days of Snorre. Dr. Horn's sketch of modern Icelandic literature is very meagre indeed. Poets like Jon Thorkelsson, Sigurd Petersen, Bjarne Thorarensen receive only a passing notice, while others are not mentioned at all. Many more errors might be pointed out, but we have done enough to show that the work is by no means faultless, and that it must therefore be read with a good deal of caution.

In the preparation of the German text the author acknowledges the assistance of Captain von Sarouw. We are sorry to notice, however, that it too could be very much improved. We find in it frequent errors of gender, as, for instance, "*das Völuspá*"; "*seinem Heimskringla*"; "*des Heimskringla*," "*eines drapa*"; "*pompöses drapa*"; "*das Gulathingssög*"; "*die Grelendinga Thattr*"; "*in seiner jetzt vorliegenden Form ist die Gragas*," etc., a kind of mistake that certainly might have been avoided. Danish forms of Icelandic words must seem strange to German readers; the proper thing would have been to give either the Icelandic or the Germanized spelling. Occasionally we find words like "*Jothune*" (for giantess), which is neither Old-Norse, Danish, German, nor anything else. The work is so important and so much needed as an aid to the study of Scandinavian literature that we hope the author will give it a thorough revision and eliminate all its errors.

A Physical Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism. By J. E. H. Gordon, B.A. Camb. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880. 8vo.)—Criticism is to a certain extent disarmed by the fine cuts and the typography of Mr. Gordon's treatise. There are many full-page illustrations of pieces of physical apparatus which have not been so well presented to the eye in any treatise. Among

these illustrations will be found representations of Sir William Thomson's electrometers which will be prized by specialists. Nevertheless, the buyer of the book will be apt to think of his investment with a certain measure of discontent as he gazes upon a full-page illustration of Mr. Spottiswoode's induction coil and the elaborately drawn figure of the man who is exciting it. The chapter on Inductive Capacity is very full and embodies Mr. Gordon's own work. It is natural that a writer, in compiling a treatise, should give prominence to his investigations; but seventy pages out of one hundred and forty-one devoted to Static Electricity—nearly one-half—is certainly a large proportion to allow to the inductive capacity of dielectrics. The author also embodies Tyndall's work on Diamagnetism and Prof. W. G. Adams's Bakerian lecture on Equipotential Lines, in an unconcentrated fashion. The same criticism applies to the chapters describing De la Rue's experiments upon electrical discharges in rarefied gases, and to Crooke's results. The treatise, on the whole, does not strike us as a classic; in a few years much of it must be condensed. It was undoubtedly prepared to supplement the mathematical treatise of Clerk Maxwell on Electricity and Magnetism, and this it does to a certain extent. Yet the student who will read even the unmathematical part of Maxwell's treatise will gain a sounder knowledge than by reading Mr. Gordon's work. Every line in Maxwell is food for thought; every page in Gordon is suggestive of a finely illustrated instrument-maker's catalogue. The general reader and the amateur electrician will be pleased with the book, and with good reason; but the investigator, and the student who has got beyond "the little go," must still look for a physical treatise on electricity and magnetism which will stand in the same relation to the subject that Maxwell's treatise on Heat stands to thermodynamics.

Studies of the Eighteenth Century in Italy. By Vernon Lee. (London: W. Satchell & Co. 1880.)—If the English reader is not well acquainted with the politics and literature of the eighteenth century in England, France, and even Germany, it is certainly not because the volumes written on these subjects are either few or ill-prepared; but the eighteenth century in Italy is a field that has been but little cultivated, though the slight attempts which have been made show it to be by no means barren. Yet, in spite of tributes like that of Mr. John Morley to Beccaria and the Neapolitan jurists, and some graceful literary and social studies like those of Mr. Howells on Goldoni and Parini, men like Metastasio and Alfieri, whose names are so familiar, remain otherwise quite unknown. In the closely-printed volume before us the author writes, in a style which cannot be deemed nervous or concise, but which is smooth and agreeable, and whose lounging eariness makes it peculiarly adapted to the subject-matter, about the Arcadian Academy, Metastasio and the Opera, Goldoni and the realistic comedy, Gozzi and the Venetian pantomime, and, incidentally, of many other interesting persons connected with music and the stage. Mr. Lee's temper may be inferred from the way in which he describes Carlo Gozzi, who "believed in the superior wisdom of childshuhs," in the philosophy of old nurses' tales, in the venerableness of clowns. So he scolded against the prosaic Goldoni, who was driving romance and buffoonery off the stage; sighed at the world growing daily more dull, more obtuse, more philosophical; and cherished the cast-off mummeries of the *Commedia dell' Arte*, as if sunshine and youth were lurking in their tatters."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Code of Manners (W. R. Andrews)
 Beard (Dr. G. M.), Nervous Exhaustion, 2d ed. (Wm. Wood & Co.)
 Eastwick (E. B.), The Gulistan of Sadi (Trainer & Co.)
 Thorpe (B.), History of England under the Anglo-Saxon Kings, 2 vols. (George Bell & Sons)

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Interest on loans, accrued but not due	51,314 61
Loans on collateral security	87,500 00
Deferred Life premiums	52,854 80
Premiums due and unreported on Life policies	34,844 80
United States Government bonds	281,520 00
State, county, and municipal bonds	393,200 00
Railroad stocks and bonds	675,240 00
Bank stocks	705,705 00
Hartford City Gas-Light Co. stock	18,000 00

Total Assets \$5,519,194 23

LIABILITIES.

Reserve, four per cent., Life department	\$3,454,212 00
Reserve for reinsurance, Accident department	309,052 72
Claims unadjusted and not due, and all other liabilities	227,818 00

Total Liabilities \$4,051,592 72

Surplus as regards policy-holders \$1,467,601 51

Statistics for the year 1880.

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Number of Life Policies written in 1880	1,743
Whole number of Life Policies in force	11,914
Amount Life Insurance in force	\$19,098,899 00
Gain in amount in force in 1880	\$916,570 00
Total claims paid in Life Department	\$1,030,200 43

ACCIDENT DEPARTMENT.

Number of Accident Policies written in 1880	73,241
Gain in Policies over 1879	19,701
Gain in Premiums over 1879	\$284,738 24
Whole number Accident Policies written	645,760
Number Accident Claims paid in 1880	11,774
Amount Accident Claims paid in 1880	\$544,171 57
Whole number Accident Claims paid	53,365
Whole amount Accident Claims paid	\$3,981,801 81

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